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THE FORTY-FOURTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY
OF EDUCATION

AMERICAN EDUCATION IN THE POSTWAR PERIOD PART I CURRICULUM RECONSTRUCTION

Prepared by the Society's Committee

RALPH W. TYLER (*Chairman*), W. W. CHARTERS, PRUDENCE CUTRIGHT,
HENRY HARAP, ERNEST HORN, MAURICE F. SEAY, RUTH STRANG,
and HILDA TABA

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of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

ASSOCIATED CONTRIBUTORS

RUTH ANDRUS, Chief, Bureau of Child Development and Parent Education, State
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MURIEL W. BROWN, Consultant in Family-Life Education, Home Economics
Education Service, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

C LESLIE CUSHMAN, Associate Superintendent, Philadelphia Public Schools,
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GEORGE F. GANT, Director of Personnel, Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville,
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Chicago, Illinois

HOWARD E. WILSON, Associate Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cam-
bridge, Massachusetts

EDITOR'S PREFACE

It is the purpose of the present yearbook to provide the most serviceable guidance possible for the replanning of educational programs that will obviously be required to meet postwar demands upon the schools. At the meeting of the Board of Directors in February, 1942, Mr. Bagley, then Chairman of the Board, suggested that early consideration should be given to the need for a yearbook dealing with prospective changes in school procedures in light of this nation's experiences as a participant in the war. Following the discussion of this suggestion at the meeting of the Board in May of that year, Mr. Charters was appointed chairman of a committee, including Miss Goodykoontz and Mr. Freeman, to define the appropriate scope and character of the yearbook. The proposals of this committee were considered at subsequent meetings of the Board until, in the autumn of 1943, the plan of the yearbook as now published was approved. The Board then appointed the committees for the preparation of the two volumes, naming Mr. Tyler chairman of the committee for the volume on curriculum and Miss Goodykoontz chairman of the committee for the volume on structural organization. With the view of coordinating the plans of the two volumes, Mr. Charters was requested to serve as a member of both committees.

Although devoted entirely to the consideration of problems involved in adapting educational programs and procedures to postwar conditions, the Forty-fourth Yearbook is presented in two volumes in order to serve more readily the specialized interests of different professional groups. Part I, *Curriculum Reconstruction*, describes appropriate extensions of the instructional program to meet the needs of groups now inadequately provided for, explains the processes underlying effective curriculum planning, and indicates the new emphases in curriculum content and procedures which are most obviously in line with the postwar aims of education. Part II, *Structural Reorganization*, explains the deficiencies of existing plans of organization of schools and school systems, defines the proper position of organized education in society and in the structure of American government, and suggests modifications of present systems of education which would promote improvement in the services the schools will be expected to perform. In both volumes, emphasis is placed on the importance of continuous research and planning as the means of such appraisal and adjustment as will most likely lead to the realization of the educational objectives of the postwar period.

NELSON B. HENRY

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

RALPH W. TYLER
Chairman, Department of Education
University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

During the war and the period immediately after hostilities cease the re-examination and revision of the American school curriculum will go on apace. This is a particularly appropriate time for curriculum revision because the social dislocations of the war make it easier to create interest in change and also because wartime experiences have provided certain new findings of importance to education.

Every social institution is subject to the tendency toward crystallization and inertia which results in the continuation of the forms and program of the institution long after changing conditions create a need for modification, revision, and reformulation of the means by which the institution seeks to accomplish its fundamental purposes. Educational institutions are no exception to this tendency. On the other hand, the war and the period of reconversion after the war involve such rapid and marked changes that most social institutions are abruptly forced into change. If this period of flux can be used in careful, systematic, and thoughtful planning, and if the changes made take into account fundamental social needs and basic psychological principles, it should be possible for the schools to benefit from wartime dislocations through the development of a more effective educational program for the postwar period.

War training experiences themselves have contributed data of value in planning the postwar curriculum. Both the observation of military-training programs and the testimony of training officers reiterate the tremendous significance of motivation in producing effective educational results. It is relatively easy to motivate men in the services in wartime because they can see the connection between their training and their military effectiveness. Learning in this case may save their lives and will help them save their country. This is powerful motivation for learning; but what can the schools develop as the peacetime

equivalent to wartime motivation? This is one of the problems for every school to consider in its postwar planning.

A second conclusion reached by training officers and corroborated by educational leaders observing military training operations is that the effectiveness of the training program is largely dependent upon the development of clear-cut objectives and the careful selection of content and learning experiences relevant to these objectives. In some cases, the early military-training programs included several subjects without any clear indication of what each of these subjects was to contribute to the training of the soldier. These programs were found relatively ineffective. Their effectiveness was greatly increased by the careful formulation of definite objectives and the inclusion only of material directly relevant to these objectives. Civilian educational programs in many cases have been developed by including subjects traditionally taught and content usually associated with these subjects. The need for careful reformulation of educational objectives and the reselection of content is another lesson suggested by military experience that can be followed to advantage in the postwar planning of schools.

The training programs of the military forces have also demonstrated large potential values in a variety of training aids, such as motion pictures, records, models, and the like. The incorporation of materials of this sort in the educational programs of the schools should also be carefully considered in the planning that goes on today.

Furthermore, the war has revealed a number of national weaknesses that can at least partially be remedied by education. Physical defects, bad nutrition, poor health habits, and lack of understanding of the sources of our economic goods are illustrations of conditions which schools can help improve. Finally, the war and postwar conditions have set new educational responsibilities. International understanding and international co-operation are two obvious illustrations.

The Board of Directors of the National Society for the Study of Education recognized early in the war that schools would be re-examining and reformulating their curriculum after the war was over. The directors appointed a committee of its own members to outline the general nature of two companion volumes, one on the postwar curriculum and one on organization of the schools in the postwar period. The preliminary plan for the curriculum volume was later expanded and developed by the yearbook committee.

It was recognized from the first that the entire school curriculum could not be treated in a single volume. The committee decided to concentrate its attention primarily on the new developments likely to follow the war and not to include phases of the curriculum likely to continue in the postwar period with only slight changes from the development that took place during the period preceding the war. Thus, nothing is said in this volume about the postwar program in science, mathematics, reading, language, literature, or in a number of other special fields except as they are related to the particular emphases selected for treatment which seemed to the committee to be the most significant developments likely to follow the war. This failure to treat some of the phases of the school curriculum does not indicate that any less importance is attached to them. In the case of science, for example, forward-looking schools made marked improvements in the science programs just prior to the war. The committee did not think it necessary to give space to this field although it recognized the importance and value of the new science program as it has developed since the late thirties. A similar condition exists in certain other fields. In the case of foreign-language training, experiences in the language and area programs of the Army Specialized Training Division and in the schools for military government have opened up several new possibilities for language instruction and have raised again questions regarding aims, intensity of instruction, and the relative emphasis to be given to oral work. Thus far, issues have been raised and some hypotheses are being put to the test. There is not, however, evidence enough for the committee to attempt to outline likely developments in this field.

The committee has considered two types of developments: one, the new groups which the school will be called upon to serve in the years ahead; and, two, the new emphases likely to be given to the curriculum program. Under the new groups, the committee outlines developments for preschool children, veterans, and returning war workers, and the expansion in programs of adult education. Its treatment of new emphases deals with mental and physical health, work experience, consumer education, instruction in the conservation of resources, the development of the community school, and training for citizenship, both domestic and international.

A most common tendency in attempts to revise or reconstruct the curriculum is the additive procedure. New demands are met by adding more subjects or more units, or more content to the curriculum without, at the same time, eliminating any of the previous curriculum

content. This results either in a crowded, indigestible offering, or an elective system in which the student is expected to make selections that the staff was unable to make. The yearbook committee recognizes that curriculum revision requires careful selection and elimination so that the program can provide adequate emphases and sufficient time for illustration and application as well as understanding. The subsequent chapters are not presenting material simply to be affixed to the present course of study. Hence, in chapter v, techniques for thoroughgoing re-examination and restudy of the present curriculum are outlined. The committee views this volume as a handbook which will be of help to faculties in planning new developments in the school curriculum.

SECTION I
NEW GROUPS TO BE SERVED

CHAPTER II
LIBERALIZING THE PROGRAM FOR PRESCHOOL
CHILDREN

RUTH ANDRUS
Chief, Bureau of Child Development and Parent Education
State Education Department
Albany, New York

I. INTRODUCTION

Balance in emphasis on human and material values is necessary in a democracy. The human values are the process and the end; material possessions, the means to carry on the process and achieve the end. Young children under six are our basic human resource and most important because their value to themselves and to society is largely determined during those years. While they are young they acquire the physical strength or weakness which makes them as children and adults an asset or a liability to the nation. During these early years, they learn in their families the taboos, the accepted ways of behaving, the symbols of failure and success of their culture. Thus, the future strength of democracy is determined by the daily experiences of little children.

Our attitudes toward children, however, reflect the current confusions and contradictions. Since World War I, we have been developing an increasing body of information concerning the growth and development of children, the effect of early childhood experiences within the family upon the later personality adjustment of individuals, and the importance of the first six years for physical health, mental hygiene, and longevity. At the same time we learn that, while our birth rate declines, many of those who are born are lost during the first year from preventable diseases and birth injuries; that while the 1940 census shows hundreds of thousands fewer children under nine years of age than there were in 1930, we are startled to discover great human waste in this period, particularly among children under six years of age, due to lack of good health care and protection from accidents, especially

at home, and of good nutrition and mental hygiene.¹ We have unlimited resources for building the engines of war and for developing postwar machines and gadgets, but when money is appropriated children may become only secondary consideration, as exemplified by the most recent appropriation for school lunches which went through as a rider to a bill giving federal money for fertilizer and pest control.

Confusion is also apparent in the conditions families face and in our contradictory feelings and actions regarding family living. We discover that more families are now living in cities than in rural areas but more children are born to rural families; that families no longer have a native habitat but move from place to place throughout the length and breadth of the country; that many families live in city and rural slums but local real estate men and housing authorities feel threatened by federal housing projects. Children need safe, sanitary houses with yards in which to play. We know that family living is interrupted and that strains and tensions are increased because fathers are drafted and mothers are working. With one part of our minds we accept the fact that women must work to keep home and children together, but with the other part we say that woman's place is in the home; and we refuse or hesitate to help mothers take care of their young children so as to ease for them the burden of holding two jobs, homemaking and earning a living. We say that family life is dissolving before our eyes, while at the same time an increasing number of girls and men are showing their faith in family relations and the future by marrying and having children.

In the higher-income families, fewer children are born; and while they may be given every medical and educational advantage that money can purchase, they suffer from overprotection as "only children" and bear alone the weight of parental solicitude. On the other hand, people of lower income generally have larger families; and while these children often experience a healthy "give and take" with brothers and sisters, they frequently lack the medical care and educational opportunities which in our present situation only money can buy.

We know that very early in their lives, and from their families, young children learn prejudice and intolerance of other races and creeds, but we go on tolerating and even encouraging families who come from other countries to live together as isolated racial or nationality groups with little or no opportunity for intergroup contacts with native-born families. Only by living as neighbors in communities can

¹ *Human Conservation: The Story of Our Wasted Resources*. (Prepared by Lawrence K. Frank.) Bulletin of the National Resources Planning Board. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

the evil effects of social differences and lack of mutual understanding be mitigated.

We have learned that family relations which value each individual as a person for what he is and which provide love and security are essential if children are to be well physically and emotionally and to be capable of creative effort. However, some fathers are coming back from training camps and trying to enforce military discipline in the home; and, as Wacs and Waves, the mothers of tomorrow's young children are learning to give and take orders rather than to value the point of view of others. This poses grave questions regarding the family influences which will affect the total growth and development of our postwar children.

II. THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN IN A DEMOCRACY

If the postwar needs of our country are to be met, we must give certain considerations to each child and provide various opportunities where young children may learn all aspects of the discipline of democracy. Those who undertake this guidance, both parents and teachers, should be friendly, understanding people who themselves accept these disciplines.

Our democratic culture must give consideration to each child as a person, not only as different from adults and other children, but also as differing within himself from one period to the next as he grows and participates in the life of his family, school, and community. The behavior values of age must be considered, but it must be remembered that each child does his own growing and is a continuously developing person.

Opportunities and aids must be provided for optimal growth in the vegetative functions and physical health. Adequate but not rigid organization of each child's daily life should be assured so that eating, elimination, and sleep provide a healthful foundation but do not become the main aims of life.

We must provide each child with experiences for body growth and co-ordination and for the development of various motor skills. These require space to run, something to climb on and over, things to pull and push or to take apart and put together, other things to taste and smell, places and things to see. All are essential for an understanding of the world of material things in which each child must find himself. All the media of our culture, such as paint, clay, and music must be given him as he needs them in order to express the meaning his world has for him.

Rich, deep, and varied emotional as well as social experiences are necessary that each child may develop as a person in relations with his family, other children, and adults; that he may learn the social disciplines of democracy, as well as understand and, with deep satisfaction to himself, express his feelings about this world of things and people.

As a result of participating in these experiences, the evolving needs of the individual child are met and he finds himself as a person who, in learning the disciplines of democracy, is well and strong in vital energy, is friendly and liked by others, is active both in thinking and doing, can learn to work in a group with understanding of group controls, gradually becomes aware of and respects the rights of others, can solve problems, likes other children of different races and religions, grows from first-hand contacts in understanding of the world of things and people in which he lives, and is sensitive to beauty.

The needs of society and of the individual are interrelated and both needs should be met in our plans for young children. The world goes forward on the feet of little children, but the adults in that world build the road those feet are to travel. As each child lives from day to day, he is learning the ways of his people and is becoming a healthy, adjusted person. Only if that daily life is suited to his needs, can the child develop to best advantage. This daily life, which contains the essential elements of his education, is described below as a day cycle. The resources of our nation should be utilized to insure for every child the health and well-being of such a day cycle planned and guided by understanding adults who will give him the considerations and opportunities he needs. This use of our resources is necessary to conserve and develop children, not only for their own sakes but also to insure the healthy growth of our democratic society.

THE DAY CYCLE

As the child gets up in the morning, his mother senses his mood, gauges his physical condition, and lovingly helps him start the business of the day.

a) *Breakfast.* He learns to feed himself and to eat the food his mother gives him, foods which have greatest nutritional value for him; and he does this in a safe, friendly environment.

b) *Elimination.* He is given an opportunity, as he requires during the day, to learn control of his vegetative functions, always in terms of his own rhythm and maturity level.

c) *Play.* Indoors and out, at all seasons, with other children and by himself, with near or not-too-distant adult guidance, he plays with things and with people, adults or children, in a constantly enlarging world. He learns to be alone, as well as to work and play with others. Suitable materials for

exercise and construction and others for manipulation and creative expression, places to go and things to see, with help in understanding what they mean—all these are part of this play which is each young child's work and by which he develops his understanding of his world and his role in that world.

d) *Morning lunch.* At some time in the midmorning he is given a little fruit or other nourishment to prevent fatigue and to provide a pause in the day's activity.

e) *Rest before dinner.* Rest or quiet time before his noon meal is essential so that eating may be a pleasure for a hungry youngster, rather than a task for a tired one.

f) *Dinner.* At dinner, preferably before 12:00 noon, he again learns to eat the food and use the tools his mother gives him, gradually experiencing eating as a time of friendly interchange.

g) *Afternoon nap.* An afternoon nap is essential for relaxation, growth, and development of every child in this age group. Probably one or two hours in length in a quiet, darkened, appropriately equipped room is sufficient.

h) *Play.* This period is similar to the morning play period, but only part of the time should be spent with other children. Later in this part of the day and before and after his supper, his family, particularly his father, will allot some time for stories, singing, music, looking at pictures together, and thus may become a source of comfort and lasting influence.

i) *Supper.* The evening meal should be very simple—not dinner—to insure a peaceful night.

j) *Going to bed.* The child should retire at an early hour in order to be assured of ten to twelve hours of sleep. Perhaps there may be a story, but certainly he should be "tucked in" by a loving hand.

The guidance of friendly, understanding grown-ups is a necessary condition if this twenty-four hour plan for the child's day is to be of greatest benefit to him. Not only are all his biological needs included, but time is given the young child to grow toward physical and psychological maturity. Time, however, is not in itself sufficient. A suitable environment is necessary where equipment is suited to his size, materials are provided for experimentation, other children are present some of the time, and where gradually each child may discover his abilities and limitations, the life of the family, the functions of its members, and the relations of the home to the community.

The playtime is the most important from the child's point of view. Then he really works; he can make choices, experiment, and relive in play his daily life so that it has increasing meaning for him and his role gradually becomes clearer. Play by himself or with others is a very creative experience for every youngster, and children are always ready to play unless they are physically below par, thwarted by grown-ups, or deprived of things with which to play.

There should be a chance for chores which are a real, not an artificial, part of his daily life. There are toys to be put away, clothes to be hung up, the need for sweeping up sand or flour he has spilled and sometimes the opportunity of helping grown-ups when they are making beds and setting the table. In this way children learn respect for work and gradually assume responsibility for taking care of things. Adults should gauge their expectations according to the child's ability to perform these tasks.

All who realize the vital need of each child to live such a day cycle must plan together to eliminate the human waste we now experience and to guarantee the well-being of all children. Simple as the day cycle seems to be and obvious as its values are, thousands of children are deprived of the advantages of such daily experiences. Until we utilize our resources fully to the end that all children in the land may experience such a day cycle, this waste of human resources will continue.

III. THE PUBLIC SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN

Only if the resources of the entire nation are tapped to insure such an educational program as has been described can young children, our basic human resource, be conserved and developed. There can be no discrimination in providing such advantages for children. Every child, no matter of what race, creed, color, economic, or social status, must be included. Whether the child lives in country, village, or city, we are obligated to see to it that he has a healthy, happy, well-nurtured childhood.

The first five years of a child's life are the most important five years that he will ever experience; important and vital years because they are *first*. During these years he learns more than during any other five-year span. He develops the ways of behaving and the physical health which are necessary if he is to live fully as a child and as a grown-up. The maximum development of our material resources requires a citizenry capable of all-out effort and achievement. "The chief problems of this age period are health care (vaccination, immunization); protection, especially from accidents; nutrition; and mental hygiene, providing love, affection, and security."²

We possess sufficient knowledge and resources to conserve young children and insure their best development. All young children must be reached for periodic physical examination and medical care. Every child must have a chance to live a healthy, happy day cycle. A large

² *National Resources Planning Board Bulletin, ibid., p. 43.*

body of knowledge has accrued from clinical studies and research in the fields related to child growth and development. Professionally trained people should be available to co-operate with parents, individually and in groups, in interpreting this information in the light of the needs of families and children. In addition, professional workers who understand the significance of our knowledge of early childhood should be provided to work directly with young children to supplement and reinforce home guidance. Special services such as those in the fields of pediatrics, psychiatry, psychology, dentistry, and nutrition, should be co-ordinated and made accessible to all parents for their children. To provide such opportunities, all parents and all children must be reached by a public, tax-supported agency. The public schools are such an agency. It is, therefore, proposed that public schools, free to all the children of all the people, assume responsibility for a program of parent and early-childhood education required for the fullest development of our human resources. All community agencies need to work together to guarantee such an education for each child and his parents, but the public schools have a responsibility for leadership which cannot be disregarded.

1. Essential Types of School Programs

It is necessary to examine certain basic population facts to see what should be done to serve all parents and all children. Where do the young children of America live? According to the 1940 census figures, 56.5 per cent of our population live in urban areas and 43.5 per cent in rural areas, including farm and nonfarm population in places under 2,500. But of the 21,226,146 children under nine years of age, 11,135,769, or slightly more than half, are rural-dwelling children. In many of the wealthier states the ratio of children to adults is lower than in states with less well-developed resources. In addition, twenty-eight states are more rural than urban and even our most thickly populated states have large rural and sparsely settled areas. These facts hold many implications both for the sources of support for schools and the kinds of programs to be provided.

A. GENERAL CHILD ACCOUNTING

There is a growing tendency in some states, and it is certainly desirable in all states, for the schools to be recognized as the agency responsible for general child accounting from birth on. This service will give opportunity for co-operation with health and social welfare agencies. Knowledge of where children live is necessary in planning the public school program of parent and early-childhood education.

B. PARENT EDUCATION

It is common knowledge and also proved by research studies that the way a child lives in his family during his early years has more to do with his mental and social maladjustment or well-being than any other influence he ever experiences. The most important thing the public schools can do is to collaborate with parents, both fathers and mothers, so that all may gain sympathetic understanding of young children and knowledge of how they may help these children grow healthily and happily. Public schools can discharge their responsibility to young children and their parents in different ways. Any combination of the methods discussed in the following pages may be worked out by the public schools and parents working together and with other community agencies, depending on the needs of the people and the density of the population. In all the programs essential elements of the day cycle should be emphasized and the necessity for learning the ways of behaving in a democracy should be stressed.

1) *Well-baby clinics.* Public schools in either thickly or sparsely settled areas co-operating with public health services may provide space for well-baby clinics for children from birth to two years and may assist parents and nurses to develop parent-education programs as part of the prenatal and well-baby clinic service. This service also may be extended to older children and their parents.

2) *Guided observation in play groups.* Small groups of two-, three-, and four-year-old children may be brought together for one morning or one afternoon a week under the guidance of a trained nursery-school teacher. The parents may observe these children—how they work and play together, what their difficulties and interests are, and whether or not they can use language, equipment, and materials according to their general level of development. After an hour's observation, these parents and a person trained in parent-education may discuss what they have seen, the meaning of the children's behavior at home and in the play group, and how these children may be guided toward fuller adjustment and development. These groups may meet in a school or, if the parents are widely separated, in the home of one of them where adequate but inexpensive material and equipment have been made available by the public school. Outdoor play groups offer very satisfactory guided-observation opportunities. The professional staff should be supplied by the public schools and should be available to the school district according to the parents' needs.

These play groups may meet more frequently than once a week, if possible, and may serve as observation and participation opportuni-

ties for junior and senior high school boys and girls in social studies and homemaking classes, not so much for the purpose of preparental education as to increase their understanding of their own families and the relationship of their family life to their own difficulties and purposes.

3) *Family consultation centers.* In such centers, conferences for individual parents and children may be provided as well as group opportunities for both children and grown-ups by means of guidance nurseries, play groups, and study-discussion groups for parents. Nursery schools and kindergartens with accompanying opportunity for observation, participation, and study-discussion may also be made available. In these centers the services of specialists in homemaking, health, mental hygiene, dentistry, and nutrition may be co-ordinated for the benefit of children and their parents.

Family-life education programs for parents of children of all ages may be developed in connection with family consultation centers, including premarital courses as well as discussions of mental hygiene and family relations for adolescent boys and girls.

4) *Nursery schools.* In forty-two states kindergartens are legally regarded as part of the public school system. The public generally does not so much need to be convinced of the value of kindergartens as they need to be sure that the education provided for five-year-old children is appropriate for this age-group and will contribute to their best development. Kindergartens' originally laid great stress on maintaining close contacts with the children's parents but as time has gone on and the teachers have been overwhelmed with large numbers of children and heavy schedules, parents have not been so welcome in the schools and very few teachers make friendly visits in the children's homes. A review of the kindergarten program in the light of our more recent knowledge of child growth should be undertaken by parents and teachers if the needs of the five-year-old children are to be met and their continuous development throughout the period of early childhood is to be maintained.³

The discussion in this section will center around the kind of educational opportunity to be provided by the public schools for two-, three-, and four-year-old children and their parents. More children

³ A discussion of the general needs of five-year-old children may be found in Arnold Gesell and Others' *The Infant and Child in the Culture of Today*, pp. 246 ff. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. A suggested curriculum content may be found in Ruth Andrus and Associates' *Curriculum Guides for Teachers of Two-to-Six-Year-Old Children*, pp. 40 ff. A John Day Book. New York: Reynall & Hitchcock, 1936.

probably derive more benefit from good nursery schools with their accompanying opportunities for parents and teachers to work together than from any of the other methods of providing educational opportunities for young children and their parents previously described.

It is important, particularly with the younger child who has not been separated from his parents, that when he first comes to nursery school, his mother come with him and stay with him each day for a while until he has had time to become acquainted with his environment. The teacher should advise with the mother in regard to this procedure in terms of the maturity and social adjustment of the individual child.

Sometimes it may be necessary for someone besides the parent to bring the nursery-school child and call for him each day, but in so far as possible the mother or the father should do this in order to give the teacher any information regarding the child's experience at home, to be kept fully informed in regard to the child's nursery-school experience, and to see him frequently in the school situation. By means of these casual daily contacts the nursery-school teachers and the parents work together for the children's maximum growth and development.

In addition to individual conferences with the teachers and group meetings, parents should have many opportunities to visit the school, take part in the work of the school, and have dinner there with the children. Only in this way can the parents understand the program and feel that they are a part of it. Often parents may assist by making curtains, bibs, sheets, and toys, and by painting or repairing equipment.

The teacher should visit in each child's home as a friend of the family to learn how the child lives in his family. This understanding which his parents may help the teacher to gain is essential for her guidance of the child at nursery school.

Many of the problems of our present culture may be remedied for children and parents by a program of nursery education. An antidote to family strains and tensions is provided for both parents and children. For a part of the day the mother is freed for other household or community obligations or for work outside the home. By participating in the life of the school, both parents gain understanding of the ways in which different children learn to behave at different ages and in different situations, so their feelings of anxiety that their own children are not "measuring up" are alleviated and both parents and children are freed to enjoy one another. In addition, problems which

threaten the healthy growth of the family are understood and remedied so that family values are preserved in an evolving pattern of family life.

Many incipient personality difficulties are understood and redirected before they become too deeply rooted to permit wholesome living with other children and adults. Often unadjusted ways of behaving are driven in as a permanent part of the child's personality because one or both parents have been worried and tense on account of behavior which, if it had not been unduly noticed, would have been but a passing phase in the process of growing up.

The effects of poor and crowded housing conditions, whether in the city or rural slum, may be alleviated if for part of each day young children may eat, sleep, and play in clean, safe, well-equipped nursery schools where understanding adults welcome them and guide their living together. It is equally important that "only children" from overprotecting homes, where their every whim is satisfied or where they are handed over to nursemaids, should have the advantage of working and playing with other children and of learning the "give and take" of the group, the value and fun of being on their own, and of developing respect for others along with respect for themselves.

In many instances in nursery schools where there are children of different races and religions, the parents by working together for their children have gained in mutual understanding and respect and so their children have not developed prejudices which prevent intergroup understanding and co-operation. We need this social climate for all children.

A brief summary of research findings reveals that nursery schools can contribute to the over-all growth and development of the children, to the general kindergarten—elementary-school program, and to parent education. The following data are taken largely from reports prepared by Dr. Beth Wellman, Child Welfare Research Station, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa: There were fewer contagious diseases among nursery-school children; their eating habits improved; and other physical habits, such as cleanliness, were better established. In social and emotional development the nursery-school children showed increased maturity and competence as compared with nonnursery-school children. They showed greater independence in problem solving, leadership, initiative, and self-reliance. These children made strides in curiosity about the world around them, with consequent increase in their fund of information as well as in their vocabulary. Traits which education and welfare workers find when they occur in older children often serve as the basis for delinquent behavior—overly aggressive

tendencies, cruelty to animals, poor work habits, and emotional instability—can be spotted and frequently adjusted during the nursery-school years.

2. Bases for Planning the Curriculum for Children from Two to Five Years of Age

The needs⁴ of young children provide the guides by which teachers and parents organize the day to provide experiences suited to each age group and to give consideration to individual differences. They are the bases for developing the content of the curriculum, academically speaking, which is expressed in each phase of the day's activities. Children are grouped, space is provided, and equipment⁵ is supplied in accordance with these needs as they are manifested at different age levels. Guidance by the teacher is given to individual children or to a group in terms of such needs. In providing these conditions and the experiences necessary for children's growth and development, not only are the nursery schools meeting the children's requirements, but they assist each child to learn to live in accordance with the mores of his culture.

A. PHYSICAL GROWTH AND HEALTH NEEDS

The needs for physical growth and health may be listed as follows:

- 1) Opportunity for muscle development and co-ordination
- 2) Alternation of periods of quiet and active work
- 3) Fresh air and out-of-door activity adequate for growth and development
- 4) Regularity in eating, drinking water, sleeping, resting and toileting
- 5) Food to meet body needs
- 6) Cleanliness and clothing appropriate to use and weather
- 7) Protection of eyesight
- 8) Immunization
- 9) Daily check-up as a protection against colds and other communicable diseases
- 10) Periodic health examinations with a follow-up of doctor's recommendations; also a periodic check on weight and height

⁴ For detailed discussion of these needs at different age levels, see Arnold Gesell and Others, *ibid.*, pp. 159-245. For illustrative experiences showing how these needs of children have been met in some schools, see Ruth Andrus and Associates, *ibid.*, pp. 40 ff.

⁵ Rose Alschuler, *Children's Centers*, pp. 113 ff. New York: Wm. Morrow & Co., 1942; *Guides for Establishing Nursery Schools under Local Education Authorities*. Prepared by the Bureau of Child Development and Parent Education, New York State Education Department. New York State War Council Bulletin No. 11. Albany, New York: State Education Department, 1941.

All phases of that part of the day cycle included in the nursery-school program as described below contribute to the physical growth and health needs of children.

1) *Two-year-old children.* During the third year children need opportunity for gross motor activity as they are on the way from the comparatively unsteady walking of the eighteen-month-old child to the steady walking and fairly free running and climbing of the three-year-old. These children like to pull and push small carts and wheel toys; to fit together things such as blocks; and to engage in various activities that develop the finer muscle co-ordinations.

There is great enjoyment of the sandbox out of doors and constant sifting and pouring of sand. These acts are in the manipulation stages and repetitive, apparently without purpose other than the muscular satisfaction. There is frequent shift in activity, but motion is slower and more deliberate than that of the eighteen-month-old child.

The activity of the two-year-old needs constant supervision without interference. These children are generally round little persons who frequently tumble about without seeming to mind too much, as falling down and getting up are part of the lessons of learning to control their bodies. In his eating, the two-to-three-year-old is somewhat finicky, is very fond of certain foods at one time and dislikes them at another. His appetite is fairly good. He is in the process of learning to feed himself, though he often gets tired or needs help before he is finished. He is developing control of the spoon as a tool instead of a plaything but spills his food and gets it on himself and the floor. This condition is to be accepted without comment lest the child become shy about trying to feed himself. New foods should be introduced under happy circumstances and not too often, as the two-year-old changes his ways slowly and needs time for adjustment to new situations.

The afternoon nap presents problems at this age as many children tend to give up the nap entirely. Although the young two-year-old child will remain contentedly on the cot playing with a toy, those that are nearly three are busy getting up and down, on and off the cot, and soon the whole group is in action. These children are more ready to sleep about an hour after their dinner rather than directly after they eat. Time for a story or for music prior to the nap, and then taking a cuddly animal to bed, makes for quiet and sleep. When they do sleep, they sleep for one and one-half to three hours, frequently needing to be awakened to go home, although this often depends on the amount of sleep they have had at night. The waking-up process is slow and they should not be hurried.

His elimination processes are coming under control and day-time accidents become less frequent as the year goes on. The child's span is fairly long, from one and one-half to two hours. So far as possible, teachers should be familiar with each child's rhythm and help him to prevent accidents.

2) *Three-year-old children.* The gross motor activity of the three-year-old is reduced indoors as he is able to move about with ease and control. Outdoors he rides a tricycle, climbs the jungle gym, digs, and slides, chiefly for the joy of activity, but also as a part of his own dramatic play; for example, he rides fast as a fireman. He is interested in developing athletic feats for which he wishes adult appreciation.

The appetite of the three-year-old child is settling down, and he likes variety in foods. He can use the spoon with wrist rotation and likes to use a fork. He is easily distracted in this process of eating by his developing conversational interests. Probably not more than three children of this age should eat at the same table as a complex situation increases the tendency for children to dawdle over their food.

Children of this age range tend to fall asleep more quickly, to sleep for a shorter time, and to waken more easily than do the two-to-three-year-old children. Sometimes they abandon napping for a week at a time. Such children should probably rest in a room away from those who sleep.

In general, full day-time control of elimination has been established and each child assumes responsibility for himself. Only general teacher guidance is required.

3) *Four-year-old children.* In contrast with younger children, the four-year-old is a man of action. He can cover the ground; he hops, he runs, he climbs, he swerves and swoops on his tricycle; and frequently he boasts of his performances and taunts his companions to undertake similar feats. His fine muscles are also under greater control: he can cut on a line; stand on one foot; and use a saw. Unlike younger children he can sit for a fairly long period at manual activity which interests him. He can use his arms, hands, and feet as separate instruments if his previous opportunities for general muscular activity have been appropriate. This child needs space indoors and out, large and small muscle materials and equipment. He can dress himself with little or no help if his clothing is suited to his motor abilities and control.

The appetite of children of this four-to-five-year-old range is improving and toward the end of the year becomes very good, although it is interrupted from time to time by marked food likes or dislikes.

These children like to help plan and serve their meals. Desire to talk and apparent inability to sit at the table throughout the meal often distract them from eating. Helping to serve themselves or others is a welcome diversion and has social values as well.

Many of these children do not sleep during the afternoon rest period but will rest quietly with toys or picture books. Frequently during the latter part of the nap period, after resting quietly for a time, they fall asleep. They can generally take full responsibility for elimination control, although if the business of the morning happens to be very interesting and pressing, they may need suggestions from the teacher.

It is apparent that during the preschool period young children are steadily growing into clearly defined health habits. The two-year-old children are gradually developing control of their bodies for essential daily activities and gaining some control of tools, such as spoons. During the third year these children are consolidating their gains to branch forth with exuberance as four-year-olds. Not until he is five does the young child develop a good appetite more or less free from food jags and strikes. During the two-to-five period his physical habits become rather definitely regulated, although he is sleeping less frequently at afternoon nap time as one year follows the next. Firm foundations for the discipline of health should be laid down in all the procedures developed to meet children's physical growth and health needs.

B. SOCIAL NEEDS

Basically the social needs of young children are to learn to make their own adjustments with the group—adjustments both with other children and with adults—and to learn to participate in group controls.

1) *Two-year-old children.* Two-year-old children, during the first six months, are beginning to find themselves as persons, separate from the other people and the things in their environment. This tends to make them shy and insecure and results in changeable behavior, as, for example, when the child goes forth toward others and then withdraws. From two and one-half years of age on, he is steadier and happier in his social contacts.

These children are increasingly affectionate toward their mothers and dislike to leave them, so there is often crying when they first come to nursery school; but with the help of the teacher in finding something to interest them, the crying soon ceases. Independence in leaving his mother is gradually achieved during the year.

These children are interested in each other but first approaches are frequently made through attack or pushing. Each child is laying

the foundations for the discipline of co-operation and participation in group controls by imitating other children, by playing near others, and by responding positively to the teacher's suggestions, "Jimmy is drinking his milk," or "Susie has eaten her toast."

The two-to-three-year-old is learning self-respect as he learns in a friendly environment that he is a person separate from others. This self-respect is necessary for the development of respect for others, just as by taking as many toys as possible for himself, each child learns what is "mine" as a prelude to understanding what belongs to someone else. Teachers need to be alert to see that the act of grabbing for himself is led into sharing, not hoarding.

As each child's understanding of language develops and his feeling that he is a person increases, he responds to verbal suggestions more readily than to the physical handling which he often dislikes, although gestures to accompany the suggestions are necessary early in this age period.

Two-year-olds may, as they grow toward three, seem much more able to look after themselves than they really are. They repeat directions, but that arises from a feeling of satisfaction in repetitive behavior, not necessarily from understanding the rules or having the control to carry them out. As a rule they do not ask for help, but the teacher must be near at hand, not to interfere but to give help when needed.

Because of their lack of skill in social approaches, there is more parallel than group play found at this age level. Sometimes, however, two or three children will briefly play train or doctor. These children also like to chase each other, and they laugh gleefully as they try to run helter-skelter.

As part of the process of finding himself as an individual, the two-to-three-year-old resists help and suggestions of grown-ups with frequent "no's," but at the same time he feels insecure without their assistance.

2) *Three-year-old children.* Three-year-olds have much more control in their social approaches than do those in the younger age group. They have, for the time being, consolidated their gains. Their negativism is receding and they strive for the approval of grown-ups and the attentions of other children. The child generally leaves his mother without difficulty when he comes to nursery school.

He can distinguish between his relations to people and things and rarely makes his social approaches by means of attack as he did at the age of two. The three-year-old child takes great delight in talking.

Words charm him and his understanding of their meaning increases rapidly. He responds to verbal suggestions readily. He carries on conversations with himself, trying himself out and extending his command of language. As these children arrive at school in the morning they busily tell each other, without paying too much attention to what the other one is saying, all that has happened since they left each other the day before.

As children at this age show great interest in adult approval and desire for adult attention, there is competition for this attention and approval, and quarrelling frequently results. They also compete for toys; and this needs careful guidance. Sometimes the teacher can enlist the help of other children, as by asking, "What would you do about this, Sue?" The competing children generally receive Sue's suggestion amicably and act upon it. Such experiences increase their respect for others.

These children play more smoothly and more spontaneously together and for much longer periods than two-year-olds. Often a child, as a train conductor or as the mother at a tea party, will continue in these roles for some time while other members of the group change as individuals come and go. Because of individual striving for status, however, the teacher needs to keep smooth the course of the play by suggestions which help the children to develop their game constructively. On the other hand, children need opportunities to "fight it out" and learn to settle their own disputes. All these experiences help them to learn group controls.

As the two-year-old child claimed possession of things as a beginning of understanding property rights, so these three-year-olds are experimenting in social situations, are discovering their own limitations as individuals, and are learning to respect the rights of others. Two or three children will play train in a group or build a garage with blocks and will keep other children from playing with them—"You can't come in here." Frequently the teacher should help them to include the newcomer. Children of this age are capable of sympathy. Also, since the child's sense of time is developing, he can understand "when it's his time," and can learn to share and to wait his turn.

Because the three-year-old seems so competent, controlled, and responsive in verbal situations, as compared with two-year-olds, we may expect too much of this child. Thus, apparent signs of stubbornness or indecision may mean that he is only pausing to give his full attention to concepts which are just dawning on his horizon and which the four-year-old will push ahead to attack and experiment with because

he is a more lively and assertive individual than the three-year-old child.

3) *Four-year-old children.* These children are very social, prefer other children to grown-ups, and rarely if ever want to play alone. Two children may play smoothly and spontaneously together but the addition of more children in the group play generally requires careful guidance from the teacher in order to prevent unnecessary friction and at the same time allow freedom for development of in-group feeling and controls. There are taboos and customs which four-year-olds teach one another as they play family or hospital, bandy nonsense syllables about, challenge each other with "guess who," "you know what?" Yet, when they say to other children, "You can't play with us," the latter may take this phrase as a kind of dare and calmly assume a role in the play as it moves on from house to train, to hospital, and be accepted by the original group with no apparent feeling of inconsistency of purpose.

There is a great deal of dramatic play which can serve different purposes from moment to moment. Meanwhile, the children participating in the play are as important an element as are the materials required for the activity itself and they change from one role to another constantly. They need adult guidance to keep the play within bounds and purposeful; otherwise, it may go to pieces because of the four-year-olds' energy and mercurial imagination. This assistance in regulating behavior by a few rules which the children can understand, gives a needed sense of security and direction, without which children of this age tend to go out of bounds in their exuberance, sometimes to the extent that their behavior and group relations become "hit-or-miss" and chaotic. While these children are too concerned with their own interests and strivings to show much sympathy for others, they will help a newcomer or a shy member of the group at the teacher's suggestion and enjoy this responsibility.

The four-year-old is full of questions. He is not so much interested in gaining information, however, as he is in plying the conversation as a social tool and exhausting its possibilities. This tendency gives the adults the feeling that the four-year-old is a profound thinker and philosopher, and sometimes grown-ups give lengthy, logical answers which bore the youngster and deaden his curiosity. A simple matter-of-fact answer is what he needs, and turning his question back to him will often help him develop the use of words as a social medium which is his main interest. On the other hand, the teacher of these children needs a great deal of information to be able to give intelligent answers to the questions.

The four-year-old, if he has been given the food, physical care, and experiences which every child of this age needs, will launch himself forward from the calmer period of being three into an eager attack upon his world.

C. OTHER NEEDS

Because of limited space, other phases of social and individual needs cannot be discussed in as great detail as the foregoing. The additional needs of two-to-five-year-old children that can be met, at least in part, by the nursery school are:

- 1) Opportunities and media to extend and express their understanding of their environment, such as trips, stories, dramatic play, music, clay, paint, blocks, language, and numbers.
- 2) Contacts with adults to broaden their understanding of their functions, such as stopping to see the policeman on the way to school, a trip to the office of the doctor, nurse, or principal in the school, a trip to the grocery store or garage or to see some men digging or building a house.
- 3) Opportunities to participate in certain recognized social traditions and events, such as Christmas and birthdays

The experiences to meet these needs are the educational staff of which the daily living of two-to-five-year-old children is made in the nursery school. In planning the educational experiences, teachers and parents should give careful consideration not only to the needs of individual children, but to the family and community in which they live so that the details of the nursery-school program may yield the greatest possible benefit to community living.

IV. THE NURSERY-SCHOOL PROGRAM

1. Forming Groups

The children should be grouped according to their development. Children between two and five years of age are changing rapidly. As suggested in the previous discussion of the needs of children, the younger children need a different type of activity than the older ones and should be grouped separately. The separation of children into groups for the greater part of the day will tend to reduce fatigue on the part of all the children.

Those children between two and approximately three need activity on an individual basis and opportunity for work and play which develop motor co-ordination. For this reason, the two-to-three-year-olds should have much of their play in a group within this age range. Since children between the ages of two and three years are in the process of learning to get along with other children, they need to be in small groups where they are not subjected to the tensions and strains which

arise from a large group. While two-, three-, and four-year-olds need some contact with one another, such opportunities may be provided at mealtime and in singing together.

In forming the groups, the youngest children should be assigned to small groups. However, age cannot be the sole determining factor in this grouping. Some children over three years of age are small and continue to need individual care. These will do better with the younger group. Other children under three years of age are physically well developed, know how to look after themselves very well, and are definitely in need of social activity with older children. Such children need to be in the older age group. In other words, in the grouping of children, individual differences and development should be considered. The size of each group should depend on the distribution of the ages of the children. For instance, a grouping may be as follows:

<i>Possible Age Range</i>	<i>Number of Children</i>	<i>Number of Teachers</i>
2 to 3 years.....	8 to 10.....	1
3 to 4 years.....	12 to 15.....	1
4 to 5 years.....	15 to 18.....	1

A. DAILY ACTIVITIES

The activities of the nursery school should provide for that part of the day cycle which takes place from 8:30 to 3:00 or 3:30 in the afternoon, or other appropriate activities if a longer day is necessary for children of working mothers. In every phase of these activities the children's needs should be fully provided for. As the child lives each day in the nursery school, he learns the ways of behaving required of citizens in a democracy, such as respect for others, co-operative effort and fair play in competitive situations, personal responsibility for making choices and decisions and for acting in accordance with his decisions, willingness to "act his age" and to further growth in others, understanding and acceptance of cause and effect relationships, the obligation of maintaining good health, and even the discipline of freedom, that is, the control that must be developed to live effectively and happily within the framework of democracy.

These everyday activities which provide the requisite learning experiences include:

- 1) *Health supervision.* Each day before the child comes in contact with the other children, it is important that a registered nurse or some other competent person examine the child to see that skin, throat, eyes, and nose show no symptoms of infectious disease. At the same

time, it is important that the teacher learn from the parent some details in regard to the child's food, rest, and elimination at home.

2) *Health practices.* Various procedures carried out in the course of the daily care of the children, such as toileting or the serving of food, fish liver oil, and water, present certain health risks. Such routines must be considered from the point of view of health protection and be utilized to establish desirable health practices.

3) *Eating* The hot dinner and midmorning and midafternoon "snack" should be served at regular hours at small, low tables, with chairs of correct height for the different ages. The three- and four-year-olds should have opportunities to serve themselves. Groups of three to five children should be seated at one table with one adult. Mealtime gives opportunity for social contacts and exchange of ideas through conversation with other children as well as with the adult.

Nursery schools are entrusted with responsibility for children at an age of rapid growth. The child, like the adult, needs food for energy, for building bone and tissue, and for regulating body processes. He needs proportionately more food than the adult because he must not only replace tissue but he must also build additional tissue required for growth. This makes it particularly important that the right foods for good health and growth be included in the child's well-rounded daily diet. Schools and parents together should plan for the child's twenty-four hour nutritional needs.

It is essential that the meals be planned and prepared under the supervision of a nutritionist who has had experience in planning meals for young children. The home-economics staff of the high school may provide the needed nutritional service. The requirements of the diet for children in nursery school and kindergarten are:

- a) Such foods as can be easily digested and which contain the essential health-building elements.
- b) Simple foods.
- c) Food which is attractive and appetizing and which offers contrast in color, flavor, and texture.

4) *Sleep and rest.* Young children need frequent periods for rest and relaxation. They should have a ten-to-fifteen-minute rest period immediately before the noon meal. Frequently, there are some children in the group who will need additional rest periods. After their dinner at noon the children should sleep on their cots. The length of time they will sleep will vary from one and one-half to two and one-half hours, depending on age, individual differences, and the amount of rest they have had at home.

5) *Toileting and washing.* It will be necessary for the teacher to observe the children's natural intervals and arrange for toileting on an individual basis. It is possible, however, that regular toileting periods will have to be arranged for small groups of children. Proper facilities and supervision should be provided and ample time allowed for the children to wash their own hands and faces in preparation for their meals and after toileting and naps.

6) *Work-play period indoors.* Children need an opportunity to reproduce familiar adult activities through dramatic play, to manipulate materials such as clay, paints, crayons, peg boards, blocks, wood, hammer, and nails. They also need opportunities to look at books and pictures and to respond to music. There should be times when they may tell one another or discuss together what happens at their homes and during their work and play periods at school. In warm weather much of this activity can be carried on out-of-doors.

7) *Work-play period outdoors.* Children should have daily opportunity for outdoor activities. In cold weather the period should be short, and in the winter months generally the outdoor activities should be as near as possible to the time when the sun is warmest. This period should provide opportunities for physical and social activities such as climbing, running, balancing, pulling wagons, tricycling, and lifting and building with large blocks. Equipment should be so located as to encourage co-operative play among the older children. Trips should be taken from time to time by two-year-olds within the school grounds or in the very near neighborhood. Three- and four-year-olds are interested in a gradually widening environment, such as trips to the garage, the grocery store, and other places in the neighborhood connected with their daily living.

2. The Nursery-School Staff

Staff personnel should include teachers to work with parents and children; a consultant in parent education and family life; consultants on nursing, medical care, mental hygiene, and nutrition; and cooks. It is essential that these consultants, and the cooks as well, should have a particular liking for and understanding of children.

Certain essential qualifications of the teachers who work with young children and their parents are that they be people who are in good health and emotionally stable; have a knowledge of child growth and development as well as of the appropriate environment and experiences for young children; have a sympathetic understanding of children and of the effect of family relations on their development; be able to work with adults, parents, staff members, and community work-

ers; have a knowledge of community agencies serving children and families; and have an interest in continuing their professional education. It would be desirable to have teachers in the nursery schools who are prepared to teach kindergarten and primary children in addition to being adequately trained for service in the nursery school itself. Certificates are now required for nursery-school teaching in eight states.

In addition to teaching groups of children, the nursery-school teacher's functions are:

- a) To have conferences with parents.
- b) To plan with parents their participation in work of school
- c) To plan for and participate in staff meetings with other staff members.
- d) To plan with staff providing special services.
- e) To co-operate with teachers of different age groups in planning and carrying on the education program for young children.
- f) To make contacts and maintain relations with different community agencies serving children and families.

3. Integration of Nursery Schools with Other Schools

The education of young children should be an integral part of the general school program. One way to accomplish its integration with the elementary school is to group the nursery-kindergarten-primary grades together as a single administrative unit. By means of rotation of teachers and elimination of promotion regulations, children may be permitted to proceed during these seven years at their own rate of growth and development. Cleavages which now exist between kindergarten and first grade and which are in danger of developing between nursery school and kindergarten may thus be obviated. As greater interest is shown in what is now known as a two-year kindergarten program for four- and five-year-olds, more pressure may be exerted by many parents to place five-year-old children in first grade after they have been to nursery school and have had one year in kindergarten. If the nursery-kindergarten-primary grades can be considered as a single unit, each age level will have its own value in terms of the maturity and progress of a given child.

The homemaking classes in the junior or senior high school will find excellent opportunity to increase their understanding of home management and of their own family relations, as well as of their younger brothers and sisters, by observing and assisting periodically in the preschool groups or in families having preschool children. All forms of preschool education sponsored by the public schools, whether in the form of small neighborhood groups for rural children, play groups serv-

ing as observation opportunities for parent study-discussion classes, or nursery schools, afford the means of valuable experiences for boys and girls in junior and senior high school age groups.

4. Recording and Evaluating the Progress of Children

In order constantly to improve the educational guidance and opportunities provided for young children and their parents, a simple but adequate system of records should be kept. Record-keeping is not to be regarded as an end in itself. All staff members responsible for recording facts about the pupils and those who use these records should have a clear comprehension of the purposes for which the records are kept; and they should continuously re-evaluate the records in terms of their usefulness.

Those records will be most helpful which (a) contribute to the child's daily guidance at school or at home; and (b) stimulate the teacher's and parents' understanding of the needs and development of the individual children. These will include:

- a) Records made when the child enters nursery school, such as his developmental status, health history, data regarding family, etc.
- b) Periodic records, such as daily health supervision, attendance, and records of each child's development and progress.
- c) Records of experiences of individual children or of a group of children.

The records for each child should be kept in a separate folder and should be considered confidential. These should be accessible to the teachers and such other persons as the professional staff agree should use them.

The records of experiences may be used by individual teachers, or at staff meetings and conferences to evaluate the experiences provided, and for the teacher's guidance of the children.

Both types of records will be used in conferences with parents. Any formal reporting to parents becomes unnecessary when visits in the home and at school are exchanged by parents and teachers.

5. Community Co-operation Essential

In conclusion, the importance of community co-ordination and co-operation in providing for the education of young children should be emphasized. In many local communities the schools are not willing or free to undertake new responsibilities and the school people and other community agencies and officials do not yet know how to work together. Community councils or committees should be established with responsibility for surveying and making plans, interpreting needs, and

securing joint action. Through the services of such councils, school people may gain the necessary support for extending the elementary school downward to include the education of young children and schools may take their places as a community agency responsible for the well-being of these children. A community-wide program is essential to an effective child-education program.

CHAPTER III

THE EDUCATION OF WAR WORKERS AND RETURNED SERVICE PERSONNEL

HORACE T. MORSE
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

I. TYPES AND NUMBERS OF STUDENTS

Postwar education is not a phase of educational progress which the schools and colleges will enter suddenly after demobilization. Many problems to be encountered then will be those which have been persistent in American education, but which may be accentuated by postwar social and economic conditions.

The schools have already had experience with most of the types of students they will have in the postwar period. The first group is the large number of students whose education, even at the college level, has not been interrupted by the war and for whose continuing education the schools must provide. They have made up the civilian student enrolment in the schools, and their education has not been affected to an appreciable extent by the war. The number of such "regular" students who may be expected to remain in school, particularly at the postsecondary level, will of course be affected by various conditions after the war, such as the job opportunities immediately available.

The second group is composed of disabled veterans discharged from military service throughout the period of the war who continue their education with financial assistance from the Veterans' Administration under the provisions of Public Law No. 16 as amended in the G. I. Bill. It has been estimated that by the summer of 1944 the rate of discharge of veterans unsuited for active service was well over 100,000 per month. Many of these men have already applied or will apply for further training of one type or another. Those eligible for educational subsidy for vocational rehabilitation are the men who have a disability which would prevent their fully resuming their previous occupation or the one for which they had been trained. The fields of study for which such disabled veterans may enrol are limited to those which are directly vocational in purpose and which would fit the individual for employment consistent with the nature of his disablement. For these students, "postwar education" begins the day they re-enrol in school.

Two other groups are the ones more commonly thought of in relation to planning for postwar education. It is a consideration of the impact of these groups on courses and curriculums which is the purpose of this chapter. One will be composed of those young people who left the schools to take employment in industry or to engage in other activities related to the war, such as government service. Some of them will begin to return to school as soon as the need for their contribution to the war effort is no longer acute, and many others will return when the war is over.

The fourth group will be considerably larger and is the one on which the attention of postwar planners has been particularly focused. This group will be composed of the ex-service personnel. They will return to the schools in large numbers, under the provisions of Public Law No. 346 in the G. I. Bill, only after demobilization at the end of the war. Some of them will have had only limited formal education; the majority will not have completed more than two years of high school. Many others will have finished various stages of education beyond that level. A relatively small proportion will have graduated from college.

There is widespread agreement that the nation owes a special and continuing obligation to the men and women in the armed services to enable them to continue their education. The President of the United States emphasized this point in his message to the Congress on October 27, 1943. He said in part: "The Federal Government should make it financially feasible for every man and woman who has served honorably for a minimum period in the armed forces, since September 16, 1940, to spend a period up to one calendar year in a school, a college, a technical institution, or in actual training in industry, so that he can further his education, learn a trade, or acquire the necessary knowledge and skill for farming, commerce, manufacturing, or other pursuits."¹

The number of service personnel who may be expected to take advantage of such an opportunity is of immediate concern to educators. The Osborn Committee estimated that if total mobilization should reach twelve million, approximately one million persons "may be expected to be interested in resuming interrupted courses of education, or in applying to new educational courses, abilities uncovered and developed by their experience in the armed forces."²

¹ *Congressional Record* (Seventy-eighth Congress, First Session), LXXXIX, No. 161 (October 27, 1943), 2882.

² "Postwar Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel," *House of Representatives Document No. 344, 78th Congress, First Session*, p. 10.

A survey in July and August, 1943, of a representative group of 10,000 enlisted men in army camps in the United States indicated that about 3.5 to 4.0 per cent could be expected to return to some form of school or college work after the war, even if no financial aid were given.³ With federal aid, about 5 per cent more might be expected to go back to full-time school or college. The liberal support and assistance provisions of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act will probably influence many more toward additional education, especially if good employment opportunities are relatively scarce. Therefore, if the total mobilization reaches twelve million, and if 9 per cent of this number may be taken as a reasonably conservative estimate of the number who will probably seek further educational opportunities, then a minimum of 1,080,000 service people—mostly men—may be returning to the schools and colleges full-time within the period of the seven-year limit after the end of the war. A substantially larger number (17 per cent according to the above sample) may be expected to enrol for part-time training of one type or another.

The interests which may be stimulated by the military branches before demobilization will be a factor which may further influence the number of servicemen who will seek such additional education. If the activities proposed for the period between military inactivation of a theater of war and actual demobilization are carefully planned to provide some meaningful educational experiences and are integrated with an effective system of guidance and educational-vocational counseling, the number returning to civilian schools may be proportionately greater than the figures suggested above.

II. FACTORS INFLUENCING EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS FOR VETERANS AND WAR WORKERS

A major consideration for the schools will be the types of courses and curriculums to be in demand after the war, particularly by returned service personnel. In his message to Congress, President Roosevelt declared:

Vocational and educational opportunities for veterans should be of the widest range. There will be those of limited education who now appreciate, perhaps for the first time, the importance of general education, and who would welcome a year in school or college. There will be those who desire to learn a remunerative trade or to fit themselves more adequately for specialized

³ "Soldiers' Attitudes toward Postwar Education," *Education for Victory*, II (March 3, 1944), 1-6; Donald J. Shank, "Postwar Education of Service Personnel," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXI, (January, 1944), 70. See also, "Higher Education and National Defense," Bulletin No. 73, November 10, 1944. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

work in agriculture or commerce. There will be others who want professional courses to prepare them for their life's work.⁴

One of the fourteen questions asked by the American Council on Education of its members in a questionnaire in August, 1943, was, "What kinds of educational programs should be provided in civilian institutions for discharged service personnel. . . ?" The colleges replying recognized that various types should be given, such as refresher courses, general and liberal, vocational and semiprofessional, and professional education. They stated that institutions should limit their services to those types of programs for which they are pre-eminently qualified. They did not believe that the colleges should enter into competition with trade and vocational schools.⁵

1. Needs and Desires of the Students

A consideration of the purposes for which war workers and veterans⁶ will want further schooling leads to the assumption that general and vocational education will be the types mostly in demand. All available evidence points to the fact that the majority of those individuals who are considering further education are thinking in terms of relatively short vocational courses which will provide direct job preparation, so that they can be ready to start earning their own living as quickly as possible. But the fact that their general education has been neglected or curtailed means that all available guidance faculties should encourage them to supplement their vocational training with adequate general education. They should be counseled to consider their long-term as well as their immediate interests and needs within the framework of the ultimate purposes of further education.

The fact that some service personnel will be candidates for advanced and professional training is attested by estimates of the numbers of veterans who may continue in school after one year. The Osborn Committee estimated that approximately 200,000 veterans might be enabled to carry on their education for a second year, 165,000 for a third year, and 150,000 for a fourth year.⁷ These figures apply of course to all types of training.

⁴ *Congressional Record*, loc. cit.

⁵ American Council on Education, "Higher Education and National Defense," Bulletin No. 57, August 16, 1943. Washington: American Council on Education, 1943.

⁶ In the remainder of this chapter the term "war workers" will be used to include also government employees whose education has been interrupted by the war, and the term "veterans," unless specified as "disabled veterans," will be used to include all ex-service personnel.

⁷ *House of Representatives Document No. 344*, loc cit.

2. Educational Background and Military Experience of Service Personnel

The level of education of members of the armed forces at the time of induction will also be a factor in determining the type of training they will seek after the war. It is well known that the average educational level of American soldiers in World War I was the sixth grade. A considerable increase in educational progress in this country is indicated by the fact that the average educational age of present military personnel is the tenth grade. In World War I only 9 per cent of the white draftees had at least a complete high-school education, but in the present war 40 per cent have finished four years of high school.⁸ There is naturally, however, a considerable range in educational advancement among those in the services, with about 30 per cent who have not completed the eighth grade, and 10 per cent who have attended college one or more years.

The nature of the training which men and women have received as members of the armed forces will be an important factor bearing upon their further education. Even for relatively nonspecialized groups the armed forces have a tremendous training program. There must be cooks and bakers, engineers and gunners, as well as personnel for communication, supply, and transportation services. It has been indicated that 63 out of every 100 inducted men are assigned to duties requiring specialized training.⁹

Besides the regular training schools for purely military purposes, the armed services have sponsored a number of college programs such as the Army Specialized Training Program, the Air Force College Training and Premeteorology programs, and the Naval Air Training and V-12 programs. As of October 1, 1943, there were 212,528 military students at 440 colleges and universities receiving training of a collegiate or slightly subcollegiate nature.¹⁰ For many of these men it was their first opportunity to attend college. In a number of the programs the instruction was in the fields of general education as well as in technical or specialized study, so that a large portion of those who attended were given an opportunity to sample a college education, although not at all under typical college conditions or programs of study. But the

⁸ Earl J. McGrath, "General Education in the Postwar Period," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXI (January, 1944), 78.

⁹ General Brehon B. Somervell, "Preinduction Training," *Occupations*, XXII (October, 1943), 24-26.

¹⁰ American Council on Education, "Higher Education and National Defense," Bulletin No. 61, December 9, 1943. Washington: American Council on Education, 1943.

opportunity kindled a desire in the minds of many of these young men to return for additional education if at all possible after they were demobilized from military service.

Another factor bearing on the type of education to be provided is the off-duty educational experience of service personnel. Various educational programs inaugurated through the special services division were combined on July 30, 1943, into the United States Armed Forces Institute. The Institute acts as a co-ordinating agency in providing educational facilities for service personnel at nominal cost. The program has about four major activities: correspondence courses, self-teaching materials, including tests to gauge progress, group instruction, and library service. The courses are supplied through the Institute itself and in co-operation with more than eighty participating colleges and universities. A complete record of each individual's progress is kept. In forwarding the record to an institution, however, it is made clear that the institution and not the Institute is the accrediting agency.¹¹

By the spring of 1944 there were over 100,000 service men and women enrolled in correspondence courses through the Institute. At first there were few enrolments for college- or university-level courses, but the percentages rose until about 12 per cent of Army enrolments and 25 per cent of Navy enrolments were for college-level work.¹² The particular significance of these registration figures lies in the fact that the rate of completion of these correspondence courses has been about 25 per cent, which is above the rate for university correspondence courses in general. This would imply that the service groups are eager to get further education, and are fairly persistent in following up this interest. The schools should be alert to capitalize on this interest by observing the trends in correspondence-course enrolments and making adjustments where necessary to serve the interests and needs of these and other students after demobilization.

3. Increased Maturity of Service Personnel

The average American high school is not a suitable institution to serve the educational needs of returned veterans and war workers. The increased maturity of these persons, as influenced by military or occupational experience, would make it unwise to attempt to return them to regular high-school classes, even if they had not finished high-school and could get there the type of education they would want and

¹¹ Francis J. Brown, "Off-duty Educational Services in the Armed Forces," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXI (January, 1944), 47-48.

¹² *Ibid*, p. 48.

need. Nor do the servicemen themselves wish to return to the traditional secondary school.¹³ Adjustments are being widely discussed as to the best means of providing the proper educational facilities for veterans who will require training which is definitely on the high-school level. Among the plans proposed are the establishment of veterans' high schools, the setting up of classes composed of veterans only in existing high schools, and provisions for late afternoon and evening classes for veterans.

The question of maturity is also relevant to the adjustment of the service personnel and war workers who will be eligible for admission to college.¹⁴ Although in many instances they may not be at ease among typical college Freshmen, the problem is less acute than in the high school because of the greater physical, emotional, and intellectual maturity to be found among members of a college population. Some universities, as Yale, are meeting this problem by setting up separate centers or colleges for veterans so that they may be enrolled in classes of their own for the most part. Others are setting up separate guidance facilities for veterans but are not providing either a separate administrative unit or separate classes, the expectation being that veterans may thus avoid the feeling of being conspicuous and may mingle with the rest of the student body.

Syracuse University has evolved a plan whereby veterans who have not completed their high-school education may take accelerated courses in the high-school subjects offered by the university. This plan allows veterans to associate with more mature students than those in the regular secondary units and to take the work at a faster pace. They are to be housed with the other students and are to be made an integral part of the university student body. Credits may be transferred to whatever high school the veteran may desire in order that the diploma may be granted by the school of his choice. Under this plan the veteran will be adjusted to university life so that after he has completed his high-school work he may continue with some type of college training at the university "without a material change in his living habits."¹⁵

4. Inadequacy of Many Traditional Educational Programs

The readjustments contingent upon the return of war workers and service personnel may stimulate the colleges to examine their programs

¹³ Shank, *op. cit.*, p. 72; *House of Representatives Document No. 344*, p. 8.

¹⁴ The term "college" as used in this chapter means all college-level institutions, including the junior colleges.

¹⁵ "Report of Committee on Education and Training of Returned Veterans," Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University, April, 1944 (mimeographed).

in relation to the fundamental purposes of higher education in America. Representative reports on student mortality reveal that almost half the members of a Freshman class leave college by the end of their second year. It is clear that the colleges are not accomplishing their real purpose for the large numbers of students who fail to complete successfully the courses of study which they had begun. As one authority explains: "Obviously any planning for postwar education that goes no further than bringing back to the campuses large numbers of students who fail in large numbers after they return, can result only in futility both for the student and the institution."¹⁶

5. Financial Aid for Veterans' Education

The financial assistance for tuition, supplies, and living expenses for veterans who seek additional education will be a strong factor in determining the numbers who may apply for further training, and also to some extent the character of that education. The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (G. I. Bill) provides for \$50 to \$75 per month for living expenses, up to \$500 per academic year for tuition, fees, books, and other instructional supplies, and at least fifty-four weeks of continuous full-time education or training for practically all veterans who were under twenty-five years of age at the time of entering service. Older veterans who can supply evidence that their education was actually interrupted by their entrance into military service are eligible for the same benefits. A veteran may enrol in any school or institution of his choice and may, for satisfactory reasons, change his course of study or transfer from one institution to another.¹⁷

The Veterans' Administration is the agency designated to administer the act, although it is specifically provided that "no department, agency, or officer of the United States in carrying out the provisions of this part shall exercise any supervision or control whatsoever over any state educational agency or state apprenticeship agency or any educational or training institution (except those federally supervised or controlled by existing provisions of the law)."¹⁸ The Administrator of Veterans' Affairs is given some freedom, however, in recognizing public or private schools as qualified to enrol eligible veterans in addition to the approved institutions on the lists furnished by each official state, territorial, or district agency. There are also possibilities for in-

¹⁶ Malcolm M. Willey, "Basic Issues for Higher Education in the Postwar Period," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XIX (October, 1944), 175.

¹⁷ Public Law 346, Seventy-eighth Congress, Second Session, chap. 268 (S. 1767), "AN ACT to provide Federal Government aid for the readjustment in civilian life of returning World War II veterans."

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

direct influence through the approval or disapproval of the Veterans' Administration of certain educational or training programs. More direct influence may be exerted through the educational and vocational counseling service provided for in Item 10 of the act.

Since the schools and colleges of the country are almost unanimously opposed to any centralized control of educational policy or procedures, they will undoubtedly remain alert to see that the "non-interference" section of the act is strictly adhered to. If there should be widespread feeling among veterans that the schools are not making adjustments necessary to serve their needs, however, there may be strong political pressures employed which might have a serious effect on local educational autonomy.

6. Other Factors in Postwar Developments

A number of factors which cannot yet be determined will further influence the educational enrolment of veterans and war workers. The length of the war will be an important factor, since a prolonged period of hostilities will certainly lessen the number who would return to school. The trend of military events will be significant, also, since if the European phase of the war ends first there may be a more gradual demobilization of military and war-plant personnel. Economic conditions and levels of employment in the United States will be particularly influential in determining the course of action which many young people will follow.¹⁹ The willingness of the schools to make adjustments to provide the type of training desired and needed will also be an important determining factor. If veterans and war workers are convinced that their fundamental needs have been given serious consideration and that adequate curriculums will be provided, they will be more likely to seek further education.

7. Attitude of Veterans toward Further Education

The opinions of men about the courses of study they would prefer were sought in connection with the survey of 10,000 enlisted men referred to previously. Their responses indicated that approximately two-thirds of the men expecting to return for full-time schooling wanted to take college, professional, or graduate courses. Engineering and business courses stood at the top of the list of their special interests. About half of those expecting to go back for part-time school were

¹⁹ Roland S. Vaile, "Enrolment after the War," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXI (January, 1944), 53.

interested in trade or business school. One-third wanted to take college work, and the remainder wanted high-school subjects.²⁰

It is particularly interesting to note the attitude toward further education of men who have been enrolled in some of the military college-training programs. A survey by the writer to ascertain the attitudes toward general education among air crew trainees, premeteorology students, and the A.S.T.P. Basic Phase students at the University of Minnesota in the spring, 1944, is probably fairly representative. The following table indicates the replies to some of the ques-

TABLE I.—ATTITUDES OF SOLDIERS IN COLLEGE MILITARY PROGRAMS
TOWARD GENERAL EDUCATION

	Air Crew N = 424*	ASTP Basic Phase N = 148	Premeteorology "C" N = 140
1. Do you plan to come back to college for more generalized college education (social sciences, natural sciences, literature, foreign languages, art, etc.) after the war?			
Yes	93	38	71
If possible	169	44	42
No	150	57	24
2. Do you plan to get just the necessary vocational training for a specific kind of job by going to college or trade school after the war?			
Yes	126	58	30
If possible	94	28	13
No	179	56	93
3. If possible, would you like to get a combination of generalized college education after the war along with specific job training?			
Yes	135	112	115
No	165	28	19

* Number of enrollees.

tions asked and lends support to the idea that general education, both by itself and in combination with vocational training, will be particularly important for service personnel after the war.

When asked to rank specific fields of general education in order of preference, the trainees ranked physical sciences and mathematics, citizenship and social relations, and oral and written expression among their first three choices, in that order. The fields for which they expressed least preference were fine arts, foreign languages and literature, and philosophy, logic, and ethics.

²⁰ *Education for Victory, loc cit.*

III. PROPOSED CURRICULUM ADAPTATIONS TO SERVE THE NEEDS OF VETERANS AND WAR WORKERS

1. Liberalizing Admission Requirements

A factor influencing postwar curriculums will be the action of the educational institutions in liberalizing admission requirements.²¹ Those individuals who may desire secondary-level work, but who may not have completed the elementary school, should be given an opportunity to take tests to demonstrate ability to carry high-school work. If they show a satisfactory level of performance they should be admitted to high-school classes without further qualification.

Many colleges have taken steps to permit returned service personnel to qualify for admission even if they have not graduated from high school with the usual required pattern of academic subjects. The Armed Forces Institute has devised a number of examinations which will assist the colleges in classifying returning service personnel for the appropriate educational levels. One of the policies relating to college admission, therefore, recommended by the American Council on Education reads as follows:

Any individual in the armed services who demonstrates by taking the General Education Development Examination given by the United States Armed Forces Institute that he has reached a level of competence in general education corresponding to the satisfactory achievement of college students should be considered for classification in college indicated by his standing in the examination.²²

2. Credit for Military Training and Experience

A problem related to admission to college is that of granting of credit for military experience or participation in a college or other military-training program.²³ The American Council on Education has

²¹ Arthur E. Traxler, "Present Trends in Planning College Programs for the Postwar Group," *School and Society*, LIX, (April 22, 1944), 273-75

²² "Statement Relative to College Credit for Military Experience and for Experience in Civilian Activities Related to the War." Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

²³ Ralph W. Tyler, "Sound Credit for Military Experience," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXI (January, 1944), 58-64; A. J. Brumbaugh, "Higher Education Plans for the Future," *The Educational Record*, XXV (April, 1944), 99-108; *Secondary-School Credit for Educational Experience in Military Service* (Pamphlet). Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1943; Francis J. Brown, *School and College Credit for Military Experience: Answers to Questions* (Leaflet). Washington: American Council on Education and National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1943.

recommended to colleges that credit should be allowed on the basis of examinations in the appropriate subject-matter field for educational competence at the college level gained through correspondence courses offered by the United States Armed Forces Institute, independent study, locally organized classes, or group discussions. The Armed Forces Institute provides such examinations for men in the service and suggests that the institutions should set up norms for evaluating competence.²⁴

The American Council on Education recommends, furthermore, that the individual be permitted college credit only to the extent that the special knowledge, abilities, and skills which he may have acquired while in military service correspond to recognized subjects in the curriculum of an institution. The giving of blanket credit is specifically discouraged, and that for basic training, not to exceed a maximum of one-half semester, is to be assigned to physical education, hygiene, military training, or appropriate electives.²⁵

3. General Education and Vocational Training

One of the significant trends in American schools and colleges is that toward general education. The need for a sound program of general education has been underscored by recent studies of the education of young people and adults. The offerings in colleges and universities have become so fragmentary and specialized that many students may complete even four years of college without becoming acquainted with some of the fundamental areas of human knowledge, and without being prepared to discharge their common obligations as parents, workers, and citizens.²⁶ A growing awareness of this problem has stimulated many colleges to plan a more balanced educational program.

It is especially important to restore this balance in the postwar period. Many of the military-training programs have been of a highly specialized nature, and many secondary schools in preparing young

²⁴ "Statement Relative to College Credit for Military Experience, etc." *op cit.*

²⁵ *Ibid.* Further consideration of this problem in order to assist schools and colleges to formulate appropriate policies and procedures has been made by the American Council Co-operative Study of Training and Experience in the Armed Services. Similar credit recommendations have been made by the report of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars' Subcommittee on Military Credit, G. P. Tuttle, Chairman (mimeographed, 1944).

²⁶ Brumbaugh, *op. cit.*, p. 101-2; *General Education in the American College*. Thirty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: Distributed by the Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1939.

men for military service have emphasized the specialized rather than the more general elements of their curriculum. General education for many students has, therefore, been seriously delayed. If the schools are to serve adequately the students who return after the war, "they must provide a broad but flexible program of general education, while at the same time filling the gaps created by specialized training."²⁷

Although there is naturally a difference of opinion as to the meaning of general education, the definition given by McGrath seems very satisfactory:

General education should give the individual an understanding of the physical, social, and political world in which he lives, acquaint him with the cultural heritage and traditions of his age, and cultivate in him those habits of reflection, morality, and aesthetic appreciation required to meet effectively the problems of everyday life, while achieving a satisfactory personal life. General education, then, should be concerned with the activities which men and women have in common as citizens, workers, members of a community and family group, and as individuals.²⁸

The scope of general education may perhaps be better indicated in terms of outcomes or purposes than in terms of specific courses. The general outcomes listed below are stated in terms of performance, without any attempt to arrange them in order of importance. Some would require more extensive instruction than others for their accomplishment, and different students would undoubtedly attain the outcomes in different degree. Extra-curriculum experiences in school and community activities would also contribute to a student's attainment of these goals, as indicated in the chapter in this volume on the community and the school.

The elements of general education may be rather simply stated. General Education should enable the student:

1. To understand other persons' ideas through reading and listening, and, in turn, to express his own ideas effectively to others.
2. To attain a balanced social and emotional adjustment through an understanding of human behavior, the enjoyment of social relationships, and the experience of working co-operatively with others.
3. To improve and maintain his own health and to make intelligent decisions about community health problems.
4. To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life.
5. To participate as an active, responsible, and informed citizen in the dis-

²⁷ McGrath, *op. cit.*, p. 76. For a concise statement of the necessity to give general training to enable young people to adjust themselves to the new ways of life, see Maxwell S. Stewart, "Schools for Tomorrow's Citizens," *Public Affairs Pamphlet*, No. 30, pp. 12-14. Washington: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1939.

²⁸ McGrath, *op. cit.*, p. 74.

cussion and solution of the social, economic, and political problems of American and international affairs.

- 6 To understand the fundamental discoveries of science in their implications for human welfare and in their influence on the development of thought and institutions; to understand and appreciate the scientific method and to use it in the solution of concrete problems.
7. To understand and enjoy literature, art, music, and other cultural activities as an expression of personal and social experience; and if possible, to participate in some form of creative activity.
8. To develop a set of principles for the direction of personal and societal behavior through the recognition and critical examination of values involved in personal and social conduct.
9. To think critically and constructively in dealing with a wide range of intellectual and practical problems.
10. To choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation that will enable him to utilize fully his particular interests and abilities.²⁹

In the light of the educational deficiencies which will be particularly acute after the war, the immediate practical training for jobs which will be so largely in demand should be buttressed with an adequate program of general education. It should not be a question of general education versus vocational or specialized training, but rather the proper balance and integration of the various elements.³⁰ Although general education is concerned with the common and nonspecialized activities of living, it should not be considered as antithetical in any sense to vocational education. Rightly conceived, general education should be complementary to and enhance the values of specialized training. It should broaden the individual's vocational competence, since it should make him sensitive to the possibilities of social and technological changes, and prompt him to prepare himself to meet such changes. He should thereby be released from too great dependence

²⁹ T. R. McConnell, "Liberal Education After the War," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXI (January, 1944), 86. The above is a revision by McConnell of the published list. One may well compare this list with the four major aims of education proposed by the Educational Policies Commission, namely, the objectives of (1) self-realization, (2) human relationship, (3) economic efficiency, and (4) civic responsibility *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, 1938. Cf. also a listing of "The Imperative Needs of Youth," *Education for All American Youth*, chap. v. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, 1944.

³⁰ See Grayson N. Kefauver, "Relation of Vocational Education to General Education," *Vocational Education*, pp. 33-52. Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1943. Also, *Education for All American Youth*, op. cit., chap. v.

upon a narrow range of technical skills which might become outmoded.

General education should also enable the individual to see the nature of his work in the broad context of human activities, and to obtain knowledge and experience that may aid in validating his special interests. It should further contribute to vocational competence by providing certain basic understandings and abilities with the perspective and breadth of view that make the individual a more effective worker and a more intelligent participant in a society of free men.

The predemobilization educational program of the armed forces provides for general as well as specialized education and will probably be a strong factor influencing the attitudes of service men and women toward further education after their return to civilian life. Comprehensive plans have already been made for providing many and varied types of courses, complete with textbooks and other instructional materials, so that the time of military personnel may be profitably employed after a theater of war becomes inactive. There is a morale and disciplinary as well as an educational purpose to be served in providing this educational program, and because of this fact the armed services will doubtless require all service men and women whose time is not fully occupied with military duties to enrol for one or more of these courses.

The courses in general education for this program have been developed by a committee of the American Council on Education under the chairmanship of Dean T. R. McConnell of the University of Minnesota. The report was published in 1944 by the Council under the title, *A Design for General Education for Members of the Armed Forces*. The report crystallizes much thought about general education, and provides for appropriate courses to develop the outcomes proposed by the committee.

The courses for the *Design for General Education*, prepared to develop the outcomes listed above, are organized in different ways. Some are drawn from a particular area, such as the course in Development of American Thought and Institutions. Some draw material in selective fashion from a broad field or division of knowledge, such as the course in Physical Science. Some are organized around certain well-defined human activities, such as the course in Vocational Orientation.

The program may well serve as a guide for institutions wishing to provide general education for their own students, since it is broad enough to serve this purpose not only for members of the armed services, but for all American youth. Institutions adopting this program,

or parts of it, should of course provide experimentation and research in order that the program may be adapted to their particular needs and that further information about general education may become available.

4. Terminal Curriculums and Subprofessional Training

Another need will be the provision of terminal curriculums in the colleges, especially the junior colleges.³¹ There are occupational levels for which basic understanding and some degree of skill and specialized knowledge are desirable, but which do not require four years of college education. There has long been a need in this country for systematic training of persons who were going into subprofessional or technician levels of employment. Preparation for the level of work which might be designated as comparable to engineering aids or laboratory technicians, and for areas such as institutional services or small business operation has been available through commercial trade schools, but has been too narrow in its scope.

Individuals at this employment level should have a background of courses in general education which will make them effective as citizens, as members of a community and family group, and as individuals as well as workers. There should be training which would give them a satisfying personal life and which would contribute in the end to greater vocational efficiency. Closely correlated with such general education courses should be others of a broadly vocational nature which might be effective training for a fairly broad area of performance rather than for a specific job with a particular job label and restricted skill.

Specific training for these types of occupations is ordinarily given on the job and under the immediate supervision of the employing agency. Most large retail stores, for example, conduct a school for their retail sales clerks which may take anywhere from one to two weeks. Many large industries have a training period for apprentice workers which may extend up to six weeks in length. For the great majority of these occupations, the employer prefers to give the specific

³¹ Charles E. Friley and James A. Starrak, "New Concepts of Terminal Education," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXI (January, 1944), 123-28; T. R. McConnell, "The Needs of a State for Terminal Education," *Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions*, Vol. XIV, *Terminal Education in Higher Institutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942; W. C. Eells, *Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education*, Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

job training but wants the prospective employee to have a good general background with preparation in the broad vocational area.

The terminal curriculums of the proposed Institutes of Applied Arts and Sciences for New York State should fill an educational need for which satisfactory provision has not been widely made.³² The aim is to combine general and vocational education in a two-year post-secondary program to prepare students for subprofessional types of occupations.

The curriculums of the Institutes will include:

1. A basic preparation for selected arts, technologies and subprofessions which require a technical proficiency not reached in high-school programs. Some of the indicated occupations are those of: draftsmen, electrical technicians, store operators, dietitians, radio technicians, workers in hospitals and in building, automotive, aviation and photographic services, laboratories, graphic arts, transportation, communication, and electronics
2. Related offerings in arts and sciences
3. Personal and civic arts designed to further the general welfare and understanding of the students. Instruction in English, social sciences and other liberal subjects is considered essential to personal growth and citizenship.³³

There may be a natural temptation on the part of some institutions to retain their traditional programs and merely to apply the word "terminal" to a portion of their total curriculum. But the first two years, for instance, of four-year technical schools or liberal-arts colleges will be terminal in name only if no further adjustments are made. Bona fide terminal courses, whether of a general education or vocational orientation type, should be different in scope and purpose from the usual introductory courses which serve the primary purpose of preparing for specialized work at a more advanced level.

It will be necessary also to condition people to accept terminal programs of less than the traditional four years of college as complete in themselves aside from any question of a degree. Many junior colleges, and some general colleges or junior divisions of universities, have developed two-year terminal curriculums which are being increasingly recognized as complete units. It must be borne in mind that the majority of ex-service personnel who qualify for college-level work will probably plan to remain no more than one or, at the most, two years. Therefore, there must be no stigma attached to the student who leaves college at the end of one, or two, or three years, if he has at that time completed a unified and planned terminal program.

In working out the plans for terminal vocational curriculums, it will

³² *Regents Plan for Postwar Education in the State of New York*. Albany: University of the State of New York, State Education Department, 1944.

³³ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

be essential for the schools to secure the co-operation and profit from the experience of key people from the business and industrial world. If vocational training is to be realistic, and if there is to be opportunity for maximum job placement for students completing such curriculums, plans should be worked out in consultation with people in the field who know the practical conditions. One excellent way to get the practical point of view is to set up planning committees composed of members from business and industry as well as from the schools. Some such groups have already been organized, but the principle must be more widely applied if vocational training is to be effective. The Selective Service Boards and the United States Employment Service have already established contact with job opportunities and requirements and would also be valuable sources for consultation.

In some centers there is co-ordinated planning by many community agencies, including the schools, to provide for adjustment of returning veterans and other problems involved in community or regional development. The Allegheny Conference on Postwar Community Planning, for example, has committees considering various problems such as demobilization and education of veterans, community health and welfare, housing, public improvements, and postwar economic development. Committee memberships represent all the activities of the community—industry, business, the professions, and government. The Conference is not limited to a consideration of postwar plans as such, but is rather a long-term development commission with necessary special reference to the problems of demobilization.

The "Connecticut Plan" is another example of concerted community approach to the problem of postwar adjustments.³⁴ The plan is designed to serve the great multitude of servicemen who never had jobs before the war, or who had jobs with which they were not satisfied, and the war workers who will need to be trained for some other type of employment. Veterans and displaced war workers are to be tested to determine what training or education, if any, should be given them before they are ready for a new job. Special job training courses have been set up which are carefully co-ordinated with a state information service to provide state-wide employment opportunities, both those immediately available and those involved in the long-range development of the state economy. Carl Gray, the author of this plan, has been active in stimulating other communities and regions to organize for comprehensive planning to meet the many problems of post-

³⁴ Raymond E. Baldwin, "Jobs, Not a Dole, for the Veteran," *New York Times Magazine*, May 28, 1944, 13, 39-41.

war development, including the adequate education or retraining of war workers and demobilized service personnel.³⁵

5. Education for New Occupational Opportunities

Many schools and colleges are planning to organize new courses or curriculums to provide for new occupational opportunities after the war. Although the possibilities of aviation may have been over-rated by air-force enthusiasts, it is reasonable to believe that there will be a tremendous expansion of commercial aviation in the post-war period. This will require many supplementary services such as extended meteorological and weather-prediction programs. There will probably be a surplus of pilots available, but there will be need, in addition, for administrative, service, and advisory personnel in large numbers who would be able to correlate their efforts in such an expanded aviation program.

It is more than probable that business will be expanded upon an international scale after the war. When this expansion takes place, there will be many new types of positions open for promising candidates. There will be the need for representatives, for language experts, for technical advisers in regard to various areas and countries, and for the many clerical, supervisory, and executive positions which large-scale global business organizations would require.

There will also be new industries, such as plastics, and new processes applied to old industries.³⁶ The reconversion of the latter to civilian needs will probably offer considerable employment opportunities for some time to absorb the backlog of consumer demands accumulated during the war. There will be numerous opportunities for community services, with the resumption of many which have been suspended, and new services which will be in demand as new needs arise.³⁷

Another new general opportunity may arise in connection with the form of international organization and the need for rehabilitation after the war. If the hopes of many people are realized, there should be some form of international organization after the war which would require the energy and talent of many thousands of persons if it is to operate effectively. There will be a great need to rebuild the countries devastated by the war and to guide and check the civil administration of enemy territory and possessions occupied by the forces of the United

³⁵ Carl Gray, "The Gray Plan for Postwar Re-employment," *Occupations*, XXII (October, 1943), 3-9; also "Manpower Employment after the War," *Advanced Management*, IX (January-March, 1944), 36-39.

³⁶ See chapter viii by Harap and Mendenhall, pp. 167-87.

³⁷ See chapter x by Seay, pp. 209-28.

Nations. Although the employment possibilities might easily be exaggerated, within such a framework there should be many thousands of opportunities which do not now exist and for which training of a reasonably specialized nature may be required.

Bulletin Number 55, issued as early as June 3, 1943, by the American Council on Education, indicated, for example, that the American Association of University Women had, at that time, just completed a study of courses offered to train women for foreign relief and rehabilitation work in the postwar period. There were, of course, wide variations in the types of offerings, but some colleges and universities offered comprehensive integrated programs allowing for major specialization in training for work in foreign relief and rehabilitation. A total of sixty institutions were at that time offering courses especially designed for such purpose, both at the undergraduate and graduate level.

A specific example of such type of training is illustrated by one of the programs proposed by the New Jersey College for Women. This provides training for overseas service which can be adjusted to the returning service women who "by virtue of their war experience, will be unusually adapted to this kind of work." The program has three parts: "(1) the acquisition of a special skill; (2) the acquisition of a speaking knowledge of a foreign language; (3) area training for the region of that language, patterned after the foreign-area training courses of the Army." Thus far French and German area training have been arranged for; others may be added. The variety of training opportunities is noted in the following statement:

Among the special skills which may be learned by the careful selection of available courses are: training in accounting, foreign shipping, business practices, nutrition, clothing, library service, secretarial work, and actual government practices, notably in local government.³⁸

6. New Concepts in Course and Curriculum Organization

To some extent the military needs which dictated the setting up of specialized training programs may give the colleges some new ideas in curriculum approach. Any curriculum or course reorganization, however, should be made with continual reference to the idea that the content itself is not so important as the educational objectives underlying any particular selection of content material. The Foreign Area and

³⁸ "Proposals for Postwar Education of Returning Service Women at New Jersey College for Women." New Brunswick, New Jersey: New Jersey College for Women, September, 1943 (mimeographed). See also Egon Raushofenwertheimer, "Training for International Administration," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, VII (June, 1944), 160-65.

Language Programs of the A.S.T.P. are illustrative of varied content unified toward very specific objectives. For the purpose of preparing military personnel to take over government and management of occupied areas, the army set up curriculums with the understanding of a given area and of its people as the objective. In order to give the students the necessary understanding and skill, there was continuous and concentrated drill in the language of the area under native tutors, correlated with intensive study of various aspects of the region. These were the geographical environment, the make-up of the population in terms of racial origins and mixtures, the economic resources and institutions of the region, the culture and mores of the people, the recent history of the region, its international relations, and its significance to the war. There can be little question but that the young men following such a program gained a unified understanding of the area in question which would have been impossible had they followed unrelated courses in history, geography, economics, anthropology, sociology and language. With the stimulation of this example the colleges may well revise some of their objectives around a unified point of concentration in other fields of study and work out new curriculums of a highly effective type. The widespread use of a variety of teaching methods and audio-visual teaching aids in military instruction and college military programs may also stimulate schools to adopt some of these supplementary instructional devices more widely in their regular classwork.

As another curriculum problem, high schools and colleges might well turn their attention toward the organization and preparation of courses in certain well-defined areas of human activity. The need for formal study of such areas is not always appreciated by students at the time they are getting their education. Subsequently, however, they may become aware of serious gaps in their preparation for living in modern society. In questionnaire returns from nearly a thousand former students of the University of Minnesota, for example, it was illuminating to note that many young adults, men as well as women, stated that there had been a lack of proper preparation for home and family life in their college training. Many indicated that they felt it was a responsibility of the college to provide such training, and they considered the lack of it a shortcoming in their own college education.⁸⁹

Courses set up to cover such an aspect of human activity might be organized in various ways—some broad enough to cover major aspects of the field, others perhaps in clusters of closely correlated

⁸⁹ C. Robert Pace, *They Went to College*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1941.

courses covering different aspects of the topic. The General College of the University of Minnesota has had, since 1938, as one of its nine major areas of study that of "home-life orientation." Each student who selects the area enrolls in a core course which gives an overview of the various phases of family relations and household management. It is definitely much broader in scope than the traditional "marriage course." The student then selects at least a minimum number of contributing courses. The contributing courses treat selected aspects of the main problems in greater detail. There are courses, for example, in the sociology of the family, human development and personal adjustment, and the training and care of young children. Factors other than the social relationship side of family living also receive consideration. There are courses in consumer economics, the budgeting and care of family finance, decoration of the home and the selection and care of furnishings and clothing, general nutrition, and the buying and preparation of foods. After minimum preparation in the area, the student takes a comprehensive examination in addition to the examinations he may have taken in any of the separate courses, and his progress toward the two-year associate-in-arts degree is determined in part by his performance on the comprehensive examinations covering the areas he has selected ⁴⁰

IV. INCREASED IMPORTANCE OF COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

The curriculum for returned service personnel and war workers cannot be considered aside from a comprehensive program of counseling and guidance.⁴¹ Although there may be many instances among veterans of individual dissatisfaction with the classification and personnel services of the armed forces, they will at least have become aware of the possibilities of fairly scientific methods of determining aptitudes and interests. The Army has also made plans for additional counseling services to be available during the predemobilization period which may assist veterans in formulating their plans for postwar employment or education. The schools and colleges should be ready to give the type of guidance for which they are particularly equipped and to supplement whatever other counseling the veterans may have received with that which relates more specifically to plans for further education and vocational preparation.

⁴⁰ Ivor Spafford and others, *Building a Curriculum for General Education*, pp 160-86. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1943.

⁴¹ See especially E. G. Williamson, "The Counseling of Students," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXI (January, 1944), 129-34.

1. Educational Counseling

Although educational, vocational, and personal aspects are commingled in most counseling procedures, it is probably desirable for the purpose of discussion to consider these aspects separately. Competent counselors should be available in the schools to assist the student to integrate his military or industrial experience with his program of studies. Reorientation to an academic environment will be particularly difficult for veterans, especially those coming recently from combat areas. They will need expert help in redeveloping the reading and study skills and habits necessary for satisfactory academic progress. Individual programs will need to be planned and supervised in the light of interpretation of performance on various diagnostic and aptitude tests and previous experiences and the needs and interests of the student.

2. Vocational Counseling

Vocational counseling will assume increasing importance. Most service men and women returning for additional education will be eager to qualify as quickly as possible for a job. War workers whose skills are not in demand in a peacetime economy will also want retraining.

A well-developed vocational counseling system should also be able to give help to those who are undecided vocationally, or who have made unsuitable vocational choices. It has been the experience of the vocational counselors in the General College of the University of Minnesota, for example, that many students come to the College with unrealistic vocational aims. They aspire to go into the professions or into top managerial positions for which they do not have the aptitudes or ability. One of the most important, and yet most difficult, functions of the vocational counselors is to divert the individual to a more suitable occupational choice; and continuous sympathetic discussion of discrepancies in the individual's pattern of interests and abilities with those of persons who have achieved success in the occupation of his choice is necessary in order to drive home the significance of these differences. Alternative types of occupations should be suggested, and exploratory courses and experiences arranged. This individual procedure, coupled with group vocational orientation for the study of types of abilities necessary to successful performance in various occupations, constitutes one of the most effective counseling programs in the University.

A knotty problem of a similar nature will confront counselors who are up against the task of trying to give vocational and personal guid-

ance to a large number of men who held commissions in the armed forces. For many of them their earnings and social prestige while in service were greater than those to which they had been accustomed as civilians. Their readjustment to their previous status will be an extremely difficult task, and, unless accomplished with consummate skill, will leave cancerous dissatisfactions which may have dangerous social consequences.

In order to facilitate training for some occupations, it may be desirable to develop co-ordinated programs of school and part-time business or industrial work on a broader scale than has been widely done heretofore. This might also serve the purpose where necessary of permitting students to earn some of the money to finance their education. The educational purpose to be served might be even more fundamental.⁴² If the whole program were planned in consultation with groups from business and industry, the classroom studies and work experience could be directly complementary. The school subjects would certainly take on greater reality and significance, and the outside work could be viewed within the context and perspective of related occupational activities. Such an arrangement should also serve the valuable exploratory function of giving the student experience in the actual working conditions in the occupation which he has tentatively selected.

3. Personal Guidance

The personal aspects of counseling will be even more important with returned service personnel than with regular students. The problems of mental hygiene and personal adjustment will be tremendous for returning veterans. For many of them, the world to which they return is not the world they left, or which they idealized when they were in training centers or in combat areas. They tend to have frozen memories of civilian life, and are inclined to resent any significant changes from that way of life as they have idealized it. Their disillusionment over the inevitable changes in their private worlds needs to be strongly counteracted if their morale is not to suffer. Many veterans will have difficulty in adjusting their military habits of living to civilian ways of life. They will have developed different standards of conduct, and there may be conflicts because of differences in values held by men returning from the services and those of students who enter college directly from high school. Issues may

⁴² See the excellent discussion of this point in *Education for All American Youth*, "The Farmville Community School," chap. iii, *op. cit.* Sound pioneering work in development of correlated work programs has been done at Antioch College and at the Rochester Technical Institute.

arise, for example, involving sex problems, religion, honesty, destruction of property, and habits of drinking. The personal guidance which will help these men refit themselves for civilian life is an immediate and pressing need to which further and continuing attention must be directed.

The readjustment to home conditions will cause many problems which might not have developed had the service men and women not been away from home and on their own for a long period of time. Some of them will need to be thrown into normal contact with other young men and women and therefore should be directed into organized extra-curriculum community activities to provide the necessary socializing experiences.⁴³

But whatever the specific procedures followed, counseling of students, particularly of returned service personnel, should fulfill two requirements: First, it should be technically sound and based on as complete and objective evidence as possible from various sources such as performance on aptitude and achievement tests, observation, case notes, projective technics and interviews. Secondly, it should be humanly and understandingly administered, with sympathetic treatment by teachers as well as by counselors, so that the veterans may talk out and think through their problems and achieve fairly normal adulthood despite their war experiences.

V. CONTINUOUS PLANNING, EXPERIMENTATION, AND APPRAISAL NECESSARY

A host of agencies—educational, governmental, industrial, commercial, and professional—have been and are actively developing post-war plans which will have some bearing upon the education and training of veterans and war workers. The magazines and newspapers carry frequent descriptions and comments upon various proposals. Thousands of bulletins, pamphlets, circulars, and committee reports bear witness to the fact that the American people are giving serious consideration to the educational problems which are arising out of the war. Co-operative planning of the many different agencies is to be encouraged on as broad a scale as possible because of the interdependence of many of the factors involved. It would also be desirable to include returning service men and women on planning committees so that they may contribute the point of view of those who have had military experience. It is incumbent upon the schools and colleges to keep abreast of current developments in planning so that education

⁴³ See chapter x, pp. 209-28.

may best serve the common welfare. The return to the schools of disabled veterans and some war workers before the end of the war provides also an opportunity for careful experimentation and continual appraisal so that the most effective educational program may be developed to meet the needs of the many who will return for further education when the war is over. The American Council on Education defines the task of the schools in these terms:

No common pattern can be drawn for higher education in the postwar period. It should be flexible and individualized. It should be developed by close co-operation of all within the institution and by co-operative planning with other educational agencies within the community and with adjacent colleges and universities. The unprecedented educational needs of postwar can be met effectively only by the co-operative efforts of individuals and institutions sharing a mutual responsibility and a common privilege.⁴⁴

VI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

From the foregoing discussion, it may be possible to construct a number of conclusions regarding the setting up of curriculums to serve war workers and ex-service personnel.

1. There is no "one best" type of program for these groups. Since there will be great differences in their educational and experiential backgrounds, the schools and colleges must be prepared to offer varied programs covering refresher courses, as well as general and liberal, vocational and semiprofessional, and professional education, according to the type or types for which any given institution is particularly qualified. The greatest initial demand will undoubtedly be in the fields of general and vocational education.

2. The age and maturity levels of veterans and war workers will make it unwise to return them to the traditional high schools without certain administrative readjustments. These may take the form of separate classes, or even of separate schools. Admission requirements should be liberalized for both secondary schools and colleges, so that these students may begin work at the educational level which may be determined by their aptitudes and experiences rather than by the amount of formal schooling which they may have completed previously.

3. A number of extraneous factors will have a direct influence upon the postwar education of veterans and war workers, and must be taken into account as far as possible in planning such education. These include such things as the length of the war, postwar economic

⁴⁴ American Council on Education, "Higher Education and National Defense," Bulletin No. 67, June 14, 1944. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

conditions, financial aid to veterans continuing their education, attitudes of servicemen toward further training, and the nature of the educational experiences of individuals while serving in industry or in the armed forces.

4. Educational institutions should be alert to new educational needs which may not be adequately met by prewar or present curriculums. Some of these needs already discernable are: increasing recognition of the importance of general education; new methods of organizing courses and curriculums, such as by correlating foreign-area and foreign-language study or by developing courses around certain broad areas of human activity; new areas for occupational outlets, such as foreign rehabilitation and enlarged community services; and terminal curriculums for semivocational training in combination with general education at the post-secondary level

These curriculum revisions should be considered in relationship to the long-term educational needs of American youth, and not merely as temporary devices. Since the education of veterans and war workers as such will be a responsibility of reasonably limited duration in the postwar period, our whole educational program must be appraised in the perspective of the preparation of all young people for their most effective personal and social contribution to American life.

5 Increased attention must be given to providing competent and adequate programs of guidance and counseling—educational, vocational, and personal. The importance of such services—always desirable—will be particularly great because of the necessity for assisting both veterans and war workers in readjusting to an academic environment and in determining suitable vocational aims, and for assisting veterans in particular to be eased back into civilian life under informed and sympathetic guidance.

6. Finally, high schools, colleges, and universities should appraise their fundamental purposes in relation to the total education of American youth, and should not stop with temporary expedients for veterans and war workers designed merely to help tide the institutions over a difficult period immediately after the war. The problems which will face education then will not be new, but will be merely an accentuation of those which have been persistent, particularly at the college level. If the great faith of the American people in education is to continue to be justified, the schools and colleges must face their shortcomings courageously and with a willingness to conduct experimentation and research to build educational programs which can more effectively serve the common welfare of American youth.

CHAPTER IV

ADAPTING ADULT-EDUCATION PROGRAMS TO POSTWAR NEEDS

MURIEL W. BROWN
Consultant in Family-Life Education
Home Economics Education Service
United States Office of Education
Washington, D. C.

I. THE CHALLENGE TO ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education in America, today, is facing unprecedented opportunities. As this book is being written, the European war is entering what many believe will be its final phase. "Postwar" issues which once seemed comfortably remote are now on the front pages of the newspapers. As people try to meet the situations which these issues present there are few, indeed, who are not baffled by the demands for skill and judgment which each day makes upon them. Over backyard fences, at Parent-Teacher Association meetings, on trains and buses, at drug-store lunch counters, at crossroads stores, in offices, in clubs and cocktail lounges, men and women sound each other out, looking for facts, opinions, and suggestions that will dispel their confusions.

This does not mean, of course, that every civilian who discusses American foreign policy with a homecoming soldier in the washroom of a streamliner wants a course in international relations. It does mean that a crisis in human experience has created a widespread awareness of need, which, in turn, is a challenge to all agencies and organizations in a position to offer help. The decisions which will determine, for generations, the "shape of things to come" must be made by those who are now grown. If the educational opportunities provided for adults in the approaching years are mature enough and vital enough to command the interest and respect of this age group, adult education can easily be one of the strongest forces influencing the direction of contemporary social change.

There have always been great needs and opportunities for adult education. The present conditions only intensify the possible tasks. What will it mean to "rebuild" the world after the most destructive war

in history? For many countries in Europe and Asia, it will mean starting with heaps of rubble, scorched earth, and ruined factories to provide the essentials of life for millions of people who are homeless, hungry, ragged, exhausted, and ill. Here, in America, we have been more fortunate, yet "reconstruction" for us will be a tremendous task. We must:

1. Re-establish a sound peacetime economy. This will mean:
 - a. Reorganizing both industry and agriculture for full peacetime production.
 - b. Providing suitable employment for all who need or want work.
 - c. Facing such complicated issues as
 - 1) The place of women in industry.
 - 2) The re-employment of returning service men and women.
 - 3) The disposition of war savings.
2. Reorganize communities for peacetime living. This means:
 - a. Re-establishing the community services discontinued, curtailed, or disrupted by the war.
 - b. Redirecting the energies of the thousands of volunteers who have been engaged in war work.
 - c. Making use of experience in community organization gained during the war to solve such new problems as
 - 1) The rehabilitation of communities depleted by the war.
 - 2) The resettlement of populations leaving war-congested areas which can no longer support them.
 - 3) The constructive use of such war installations as housing projects.
3. Stabilize and strengthen family life. This will mean:
 - a. Re-emphasizing persistent values in family life as patterns of family living change.
 - b. Providing the essentials of decent living for all families.
 - c. Adjusting stresses and strains which may arise in family relationships:
 - 1) When service men and women come home disabled or emotionally upset.
 - 2) When service men return with foreign wives.
 - 3) When service men return to live with wives and children whom they scarcely know.
 - 4) When women must rear children in homes without men.
 - 5) When daughters must forego the possibility of marriage.
 - 6) When family incomes are reduced.
 - 7) When responsibilities are shifted from one family member to another by illness, injury, or death.

- d. Orienting to technological changes in material aspects of family living, such as housing, home furnishings, home equipment, clothing, and food.
 - e. Providing adequate community services and facilities to supplement individual family resources.
4. Deal more effectively with such increasingly serious social problems as juvenile delinquency, crime, disease, illegitimacy, disruption of family life.
5. Make better application of the principles of democracy in the solution of domestic problems and in relationships with the rest of the world. This means, particularly,
- a. Safeguarding the rights of minority groups, and making effective use of their unique contributions to American life.
 - b. Continuing and extending present efforts to improve local government.
 - c. Improving techniques of "grass roots" community organization.
 - d. Studying objectively problems of relationship between state and federal governments.
 - e. Conserving and developing national resources, both human and material, in the interests of all the people.
 - f. Improving techniques for dealing with controversial issues in the democratic way.
 - g. Facing and fighting such threats to democracy as
 - 1) The cleavages between subgroups of different races, religions, nationalities, and classes
 - 2) The fanatic isolationism of those unable or unwilling to see the essential interconnectedness between all parts of the world today.
 - 3) The increasing power of pressure groups exploiting the orderly processes of democratic government for their own ends.

These are tasks for a postwar America which can only be accomplished by people with vision, faith, knowledge, and appropriate skills. Adult education cannot supply all of the wisdom, the courage, and the abilities which will be needed for the solution of these problems. It can, however, be a powerful and a rich resource. Every one of these problems, tasks, and issues implies possibilities of relevant education. Through courses, classes, and other appropriate activities, adult education can help individuals to be happier and more effective as persons, as workers, and as citizens. It can help to reduce certain areas of social tension by providing needed types of education, such as pre-employment vocational training for returned veterans. It can increase the efficiency of democratic government at all levels by clarifying issues

for social and political action and by helping people learn how to deal with these. It can help inspire a deeper loyalty to the American way of life by teaching mature men and women to understand better the influences that are shaping American industry, agriculture, politics, art, music, science, and literature. It can help people everywhere to set new goals for postwar living and to find means of attaining these.

How will adult education meet this challenge?

II. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN ADULT EDUCATION

The word "curriculum" has no specialized meaning for adult education. In this, as in all other chapters of this yearbook, it is defined as a constellation of learning experiences organized with reference to a central goal or purpose. The principles and procedures used in curriculum building in adult education are the same principles and procedures used in curriculum development at other educational levels. On the other hand, adult education presents both opportunities and difficulties to the curriculum-maker which are more or less unique. In no other area of education are students so free to withdraw from learning situations which do not interest them. In no other type of instruction is the study process in competition with so many other important life activities. In no other kind of formal education are teachers called upon to work with students whose personality patterns are so largely fixed, and about whom they know so little. In no other branch of the educational system is there such variety in administrative organization and in leadership.

These very difficulties, however, give a zest and vitality to curriculum building in adult education which is not always attainable at other educational levels. Because adults are usually free to "take it or leave it" when they come to school, those who stay are likely to be alert, interested, purposeful students. The differences in their backgrounds, personalities, and points of view can make working with them a continuous adventure out of which new ideas, new ways of looking at problems may come at any time. Their maturity gives dignity and importance to all educational experiences in which they participate; time, after all, is short for both learning and living. And, even if none of these things were true, the urgency of the "content" of most adult education—the concerns and problems of adult life—would give work in this field especial significance. To organize the study of any aspect of any one of the tasks of reconstruction mentioned above, for example, would be an undertaking worth the best efforts of any educator.

Perhaps the most significant difference between adult and other

kinds of education is the fact that no single group has a vested interest in it. Our society has not delegated the sole responsibility for adult education to the schools, as it has delegated responsibility for the formal education of children. Schools in nearly every state are expected to serve adults as well as children, but they are only one of many agencies carrying on more or less extensive education for adults. Some of these agencies are governmental, some voluntary. They are so numerous and so varied that it would be impossible to list or classify all of them here. Some of the programs they offer, such as those of the Co-operative Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, are continuous and have broad educational objectives. Some are organized to "sell" specific ideas or accomplish special purposes, as, for example, the programs promoted by the Office of Price Administration, the American Social Hygiene Association, or the National Dairy Council. Some are set up by associations such as labor unions, professional societies, civic and religious organizations, to meet particular needs of members. Some have other objectives and characteristics or combine those mentioned.

Special mention should probably be made here of the programs offered by libraries and museums. The importance of the contributions these agencies are making to adult education in this country can hardly be overestimated. There is scarcely a hamlet too remote to receive traveling exhibits of good pictures or to enjoy service from a good library. Through portable and permanent exhibits of great variety and beauty, museums are helping people to understand better the world in which they live. Conducting "gallery" courses and classes in science and art, distributing books and pamphlets especially prepared to help lay people with problems of everyday living, and presenting documentary moving pictures are among the extremely valuable educational services which these agencies provide.

How in this often complicated, sometimes confused, and always fluid context do the "ordinary" principles and procedures of curriculum development apply? A brief survey of present trends in adult education may help to answer this question.

III. SOME PRESENT TRENDS IN ADULT EDUCATION

To venture to point out trends in a movement as diffuse and amorphous as the adult-education movement in America today is always a little dangerous. Developments which seem important are dif-

difficult to summarize and even more difficult to evaluate. The following list of trends represents the writer's judgment of the more significant observable tendencies.

a. *A tendency to broaden the scope of organized programs.* This trend is particularly interesting because it probably represents a change in basic philosophy. Adult education in this country has had, in the past, a strong remedial emphasis. Communities have usually been very willing to support courses and classes which would help the illiterate, the unskilled, and the foreign born to overcome their cultural and economic handicaps. In many parts of the United States today there seems to be a growing feeling that adult education has at least two other functions as important as this corrective one: It can be a means of enriching the lives of all adults who care to take advantage of the opportunities provided for continuing their own education; it can also be a kind of continuing, in-service training for democratic citizenship, as local, state, and national problems are studied by many different groups of American people.

The adult-education program in San Jose, California, is one which has operated for many years on the assumption that any adult who wants to study anything should be able to get some help in so doing from the schools of his community. Even before such devices as councils and planning committees came into common use as a means of keeping adult-education offerings in line with changing community needs and interests, the director of this program worked closely with groups of citizens who represented a wide variety of interests and points of view.

Many examples could be given of ways in which this program has, through the years, broadened and deepened its contribution to community life. At a time when economic conditions were creating local tensions of some concern to community leaders, a small building with a large living room, a kitchenette, and a big fireplace became the center for informal weekly discussions of current events and for smaller meetings of the forum type. During a year when the problem of living conditions in certain low-income neighborhoods was particularly pressing, adult homemaking classes provided opportunity for practical attack on these problems. Much of the elementary work in citizenship education in this city has always been done on a neighborhood basis so that foreign-born students would learn to know their American teachers in the friendly atmosphere of their own homes and meeting places before going into the larger, more formal classes held in the downtown centers.

The heart of this dynamic and extensive program is a big high

school, centrally located. On any "night school" night one can see people coming toward this brightly lighted building from all directions to take part in the many educational activities which go on more or less continuously under its hospitable roof. Wandering through the classrooms and workshops, visitors are likely to find groups studying such different subjects as scene painting, radio engineering, play-writing, dressmaking, English, child development, shorthand, welding, and news analysis. The major project for 1944-45 is a city-wide institute of family living "designed as an educational service to the mass of people and for the stimulation of homemakers toward the creation of a family life utilizing the full possibilities of modern civilization in its moral and material aspects."

b. A tendency toward co-ordination and co-operation among agencies and organizations offering educational services to adults The councils of adult education functioning today at state and local levels are evidence of this trend. One of the best known of these councils is the one which serves both as clearinghouse and planning body for the Denver, Colorado, adult-education program.¹ Eighty or more organizations are represented in the membership of this council. Its ability to act promptly and effectively to meet emergencies has often been demonstrated in the past few years. Early in the war, for example, when it became apparent that civilians would have to be informed about and trained to perform many different kinds of war activities, the Denver Adult Education Council influenced the appointment of an educational standards and co-ordinating committee in the Denver Defense Council. Through this committee, arrangements were made for the Denver public schools to employ a co-ordinator of training for the Citizen's Defense Corps. With his assistance, the committee has co-ordinated the training of volunteers for all community service programs and has kept the general public informed in phases of the war effort. "This job has been done through established community service agencies and organizations, the Parent-Teacher Association block mother organization, victory information centers of the Denver Public Library, newspapers, radios, and speakers' bureau."²

Through these channels the committee has distributed, in addition to its own releases, materials prepared by federal and local war agencies and by other committees or units of the Denver Defense Council. It has also served as a clearinghouse for directories of information on war-related activities.

¹ Dean H. McCoy, "Adult Education and Civilian Defense: Denver, Colorado," *Adult Education Bulletin*, VII (February, 1943), 75.

² McCoy, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

Cedar City, Utah, has a somewhat different but equally successful pattern of local organization for adult education. Six years ago the president of the local teachers college and the superintendent of the Cedar City schools brought together a small group of people to act as a sponsoring committee for a modest program of parent education about to be inaugurated. This group soon discovered that education for better family living touches all aspects of community life and requires the intelligent co-operation of the entire community. A co-ordinating council, widely representative of community interests and services, was soon organized. Its function is to keep constantly in view the over-all picture of community needs. A committee on adult education is one of the important subcommittees of this council. The following excerpts from the last annual report of this program show how it functions:

The Co-ordinating Council is the planning group of this community program. It is composed of representatives from all organized groups within the community. This group meets on an average of once in every six or eight weeks, or as the need arises, for community discussion of local problems. Actually, it has become a public assembly or forum wherein problems pertaining to home and family betterment can be brought for round-table discussion. Out of these discussions has grown a united method of attacking community problems, and many solutions have been reached which might never have come to public attention without the opportunity offered by this group for community participation. The working committees receive their assignments from suggestions made in the larger council. . . . Since September, 1940, a part-time co-ordinator has been employed by the Iron County School District in co-operation with the State Department of Education. . . .

Eight working committees have functioned during the past year: (1) Adult Education, (2) Health and Sanitation, (3) Civic Art, (4) Music Arts Association, (5) Town Calendar, (6) Safety, (7) Recreation, (8) Town Beautification.³

These committees, working continuously throughout the year, bring to Cedar City cultural advantages which many a larger place might envy. One of the most interesting projects is an annual art exhibit arranged by the Civic Arts Committee and supported by public donation. The Music Arts Committee arrange an annual series of lectures and concerts in which several internationally known artists participate.

c. A tendency to make increasingly better provision for the systematic and continuous study of community needs as a basis for pro-

³ "Community Program, Cedar City, Utah." Annual Report. Cedar City co-ordinating Council Bulletin No. 3, June, 1944. Cedar City, Utah: Cedar City Co-ordinating Council, 1944 (mimeographed).

gram planning. This trend is related to both tendencies previously mentioned but involves more than these suggest. The administrator who relies entirely on his personal knowledge of his community in deciding what should or should not be offered in a program of adult education, for example, is often at a serious disadvantage. Among the other important factors which should influence such decisions are the trained observations of professional workers other than teachers and facts showing community conditions, the desires, and personal needs of prospective students.

A number of different ways of getting and using such information are being tried in various places. One of the sub-committees of the Central Sponsoring Committee of the Box Elder County, Utah, Family Life Education Program is a Committee on Studies and Surveys. This committee carries on a year-round program of investigation, sometimes looking into community problems, such as juvenile delinquency, on its own initiative; sometimes working on assignments from the executive committee of the Program. It sponsored and helped to direct a study of the problems and attitudes of young adults in the county, which gave rise to a number of educational activities designed to meet some of the needs revealed.

Another method of laying a factual foundation for the continuing study of community problems is exemplified by the Fact-Finding Movement in Georgia. This project supplies information which can be used at all educational levels in the state school system but has a special contribution to make to adult education. Believing that "a widespread understanding of facts must ultimately result in action that will bring about desirable changes,"* a few men and women in 1937 initiated a plan for gathering the facts that would explain the Georgia paradox—great natural wealth and extreme human poverty. Subscribing to a common basic philosophy, motivated by a common purpose, approximately 250,000 Georgia people, through the agencies and organizations to which they belong, are using these facts, as they are gathered, to bring about necessary changes in the life of the state, "thinking together and working out their problems together through the democratic process."⁵

d. A tendency to integrate programs of study with programs of action and service, so that students may "learn by doing," and community improvement can be facilitated. In 1939 a number of families

**Facing Facts: Citizens of Georgia Appraise Their State.* Extension Division Publication, New Dominion Series, No 49, May 1, 1944. Charlottesville, Virginia: University of Virginia, 1944.

⁵ *Facing Facts, ibid.*

driven out of Arkansas and Oklahoma by the drought were settled on the outskirts of Wichita, Kansas, living as best they could in chicken houses, tar-paper shacks, and huts made of pieces of tin. A specialist in adult education employed through the public schools undertook to fan the tiny sparks of independence and initiative which she found here and there as she visited the families in this settlement. Whenever she could persuade a few people to gather around a kitchen stove or in someone's sandy yard, she talked of things that families in the neighborhood might do together to help themselves and each other. Finally a few of the men and women agreed to undertake the study of "housing"; more exactly, they decided to try to find out how cheaply a man who knew how to handle tools could build a three-room house for his family.

A small committee of men with experience in real estate and building construction was organized to help make the necessary arrangements for materials and supplies. The neighborhood group studied problems of home financing, house planning, and building construction; drew plans, criticized them, and drew them again. Finally the men went to work on the building. Evening after evening, until darkness put an end to their labors, they sawed, measured, hammered, and planed, under the supervision of two or three trained workmen who volunteered their services. When work stopped for the night, the group would gather in a nearby Self-Help Center for coffee and discussion. A local real-estate dealer still remembers with mingled feelings of amazement and chagrin the night when a man working on the roof beside him suddenly paused to look thoughtfully at some bright nails in his hand and then said, "This is the first time in my life I ever drove a nail I didn't have to straighten first."

When the house was finished, a study was made of the various ways in which it could be purchased and financed. After this house was sold to one of the families in the settlement a second one was successfully built and sold. The study group merged into the Source Class at the Self-Help Center and, as such, is still going on.

This Source Class is, in itself, a significant experiment in adult education. It was organized to help the destitute families just mentioned make clothing and bedding for themselves. It was but a short step from the renovation of donated dresses to the repair of the makeshift housing in which most of these families were living. Since working materials could be bought more cheaply in quantity than by the yard or the package, the class soon moved on to the organization of a small co-operative. The co-operative set up its own machinery for

transacting business, but the Source Class remains just that—a resource group to analyze and study the problems of the co-operative before decisions are made in business meetings.

e. *A tendency toward a more democratic type of teacher-student relationship in which learning experiences are jointly planned.* The Wichita Source Class is an excellent illustration of democratic group organization. Specialists in adult education have long realized the strategic importance of a democratic leader-student relationship. They early discovered that farmers, homemakers, or business men squeezed into little seats and treated like children were seldom in a mood to learn. Some resented this threat to their status as adults, some were bewildered by it, some withdrew from it, some fought it, and some gladly reverted to infantile roles they had played years before in the teacher-pupil relationship—polishing apples, quibbling over grades, bidding for attention with such stereotypes as “Now, tell me just what you want me to do.”

To raise the maturity level of classroom experiences with adults, good teachers have more and more worked with students in organizing units of work, in developing teaching techniques more appropriate for their maturity and in questioning the effects of teacher-student relations. This questioning has crystallized in a number of promising research projects, some of which have already produced valuable results.^{6, 7, 8, 9, 10} These studies all seem to show that the relationships in which people make the most rapid and significant progress in learning are those in which each person involved refrains from commands, threats, assertions, and other forms of coercive or aggressive behavior which might inhibit the spontaneity of anyone else.

f. *A tendency to seek out and use a wide variety of leadership.* Two aspects of this development are especially interesting: (1) the growing tendency to cut across professional lines so that trained workers in a number of related fields may help with the teaching in such functional areas as guidance, health, or family living, and (2) the increasing

⁶ Helen Hall Jennings. *Leadership and Isolation*. New York. Longmans Green & Co., 1943.

⁷ Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, “Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created ‘Social Climates,’” *Journal of Social Psychology*, X (May, 1943), 271-99.

⁸ Eduard C. Lindeman and John Hader, *The Dynamics of Social Research*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1933.

⁹ Ronald Lippitt, “From Domination to Leadership,” *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, VI (June, 1943), 147-52

¹⁰ J. L. Moreno, *Who Shall Survive?* New York: Beacon House, Inc., 1934.

tendency to make use of qualified lay leaders in many different ways.

A study of registrations for a number of recent in-service training projects for adult-education personnel shows clearly this first trend. A "Workshop in Premarriage Education" held in Toledo in 1943 included nine ministers, twenty-two social workers, nine deans from public high schools, five school nurses, thirteen teachers, six specialists in physical education, and one or two people each from eleven other professional fields. At a recent health-education conference¹¹ a committee on leadership training listed twenty-four different kinds of professional personnel, not including full-time health educators, who have valuable contributions to make to the teaching of health on adult and other educational levels.

Although there is no real substitute for the trained teacher or leader in adult education, even when programs are small and informal, there is a growing appreciation of the fact that many other kinds of help are needed and that persons who are not professional teachers can be used to advantage in many ways. Experience in both vocational and parent education has shown that lay people can be successfully trained for creative leadership, and that programs are usually much enriched by the freshness of viewpoint and variety of talent which these recruits bring to their work. It is assumed of course that such service is given under adequate professional supervision. During the winter of 1941-42 nutrition classes in Obion County, Tennessee, were organized and led in eighteen communities by laymen who were trained and supervised by home economics and agriculture teachers. A leadership training class in Jacksonville, Florida, has discovered enough talent among homemakers interested in nutrition to put on a weekly radio broadcast, run a downtown information center, and man booths in most of the local moving picture houses. The Mexican plan to wipe out illiteracy by having "every able-bodied literate aged eighteen to sixty prepare to act as the teacher of at least one illiterate aged fourteen to forty" (*Time Magazine*, September 18, 1944) will be watched by educators everywhere with a great deal of interest.

Few adult-education programs in this country have ever used such a wide variety of skills, personalities, and abilities as the one carried on by the Work Projects Administration from 1935 to 1942. Born of the desperate need for giving work to teachers out of employment, this program grew steadily in size and scope from the time of its inception.

¹¹ *Report of a Working Conference on Health Education*. Washington: United States Office of Education and United States Public Health Service, 1944 (mimeographed).

Under its aegis, people representing a fair cross section of American life banded together—the leaders and the led—in a completely unorthodox educational adventure. Groups met where they could—in church basements, empty stores, civic centers, schoolrooms, abandoned railway stations. Students and teachers pooled their personal resources to provide the most essential teaching materials. Life experience often counted for more than academic training in the assignment of teachers, so that classes in the same building and the same subject frequently were taught by persons as diverse in their points of view as a grave little Frenchman with a Ph.D. from the Sorbonne, and a man from the north woods whose first “class” in adult education was a group of lumberjacks gathered around a trestle table in a logging camp after supper, learning to read by the light of a lantern.

g. A tendency toward much freer and better-planned use of the newer media of instruction. Familiar examples of such media are radio, recordings, films, dramatizations, forums, discussion groups, newspaper columns, exhibits, library services, and pamphlets.

Those interested in adult education who have been trying for years to reach larger and larger numbers of people have become convinced that no one medium of mass education can hope to do the job of civic education alone. An idea which is heard on the air or from a recording, seen in a movie, read about in a pamphlet, and talked about in a face-to-face meeting will almost certainly be better understood than if it comes to us in only one of these ways. The Jacksonville, Florida, nutrition program mentioned above makes skilful use of a wide variety of such media, using them to re-enforce each other. The chairman of the local nutrition committee, who is also the supervisor of adult home-making education for the Jacksonville public schools, co-ordinates program activities through the leadership training class. With her help, this central group selects certain ideas, facts, or problems for community-wide emphasis. Each of these “themes” is then treated in several different ways. It is analyzed in leaders’ meetings, presented by leaders to neighborhood study groups, discussed in the supervisor’s daily newspaper column, “What’s Cookin’.” It may be written up in leaflets for house-to-house distribution by volunteers or commercial canvassers. If possible, films dealing with it are shown in the movies, and radio broadcasts are arranged. Meanwhile, a long list of co-operating agencies may be giving the topic special attention through their own channels.

It is to provide materials and guidance for the correlation of varied approaches in education that the service bureau “New Tools for Learn-

ing"¹² has been organized. This is a joint enterprise, entered into by four well-known educational organizations: The New York University Film Library, the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., the University of Chicago Round Table, and the New York University Institute on Postwar Reconstruction. It is hoped that through the counseling and advisory assistance made available through this new organization, "wider use of [these newer] media [for education] can be encouraged and at the same time the tools themselves can be perfected." Although this service is for all educational levels, the materials so far published are especially suitable for adult education.

Special mention should be made of the fine contributions to adult education which libraries and museums are making through the wide distribution of books, reading lists, annotated bibliographies, and packets of pamphlet material relating to matters of public interest and concern. An illustration of such a service is the supplement to a recent issue of *The Booklist*.¹³ This is a list of books prepared "for mature young people" to help them sense the value and extent of their cultural inheritance. Students and teachers in organized programs of adult education, as well as the general public, are making increasing use of the many highly instructive and beautiful exhibits made available for study by museums and art galleries.

h. A tendency to plan programs in relation to ultimate values and purposes, as well as to immediate goals. This tendency, which has far-reaching implications, is reflected in the opening paragraphs of this chapter. In a very real sense, our future security and happiness as a nation depends upon the intelligent participation of every citizen in national affairs. There is good evidence in many places to show that adult education is assuming increasing responsibility for keeping fundamental social issues before the people, for helping them to understand and deal with these in the light of the highest spiritual values known.

A notable recent effort to direct community thinking toward basic political and social issues is the 1943 program of the Peoples Peace Committee of Cleveland. Under the auspices of Cleveland College, one hundred citizens from all walks of the city's life were brought together to plan and carry through a seven-weeks program of community discussion and action with the following objectives:

¹² *New Tools for Learning about War and Postwar Problems*, p. 8. A guide to Films, Pamphlets, and Recordings for Teachers, Speakers, and Discussion Leaders. New York: New Tools for Learning (280 Madison Ave.), November, 1943.

¹³ "A Goodly Heritage," *The Booklist*, XL (December 1, 1943). Chicago: American Library Association, 1943.

1. To prepare the way in thought and action for a People's Peace—
 - a. A peace that will promote justice.
 - b. A peace founded upon co-operation between peoples.
 - c. A peace that will be based on those domestic and world relationships—social, economic, political and racial—which will contribute most to man's dignity, freedom, and developing personality.
2. To stimulate the widest possible study and discussion of the issues of the peace.
3. To enable citizens to understand what they can do in the exercise of their democratic rights and privileges to attain the peace.¹⁴

IV. IMPLICATIONS OF THESE TRENDS FOR CURRICULUM-MAKING IN ADULT EDUCATION

The inferences to be drawn from the illustrations given, and from others which might have been used, seem fairly obvious and can be briefly summarized.

a. *With respect to the determination of goals and the planning of programs.* In view of the number of different agencies and organizations offering adult education opportunities today, the tendency to agree on common objectives for joint programs and projects seems particularly important. There is need for much more experimenting than has yet been done to find out what the best procedures are for arriving at goals which are acceptable and meaningful to all concerned, when those involved find their interests the same at only certain places in their work.

When major adult-education agencies in a given geographical area determine their goals and spheres of activity together, the resulting curriculum is almost certain to be more effective, richer, more varied, and better integrated than when they plan independently. Major emphases are highlighted, resources are conserved, there are fewer neglected areas, and undesirable duplications of effort are avoided. Local situations can be agreed upon, and each agency included can make its unique contribution in the light of what the others can do or are doing.

The tendency toward co-ordination and co-operation in adult education has a second implication with respect to the determination of goals which is almost as important as the first. Not only should objectives be jointly agreed upon, but they should also be carefully related to known, specific needs which program activities will try to

¹⁴ *Some Questions Answered. A Program of Community Discussion and Action.* Cleveland, Ohio: People's Peace Committee of Cleveland (807 Prospect-Fourth Building), 1942.

meet. The "machinery" for studying local needs as a basis for program planning may be as simple or as elaborate as a given situation seems to warrant. A big city may need an over-all community adult-education council like the one in Denver with special subcommittees for fact-finding. Small, independent groups representing areas of specialized interest, such as health education, family-life education, education for citizenship, or vocational education, may make their own surveys. Or, as often happens in very small places, community leaders and staff members of local adult education agencies may pool their information and make decisions informally.

The problems or tasks of reconstruction mentioned on pages 58-59 offer challenging opportunities to planning committees selecting goals or objectives for community adult-education programs. For example, a group interested in promoting a program to develop a better understanding, throughout a community, of what democracy means, might decide to take for its "platform" a statement of values and beliefs such as the "hallmarks" of democracy proposed by the Educational Policies Commission;¹⁵ the "new declaration of personal rights" proposed in the 1942 report of the National Resources Planning Board;¹⁶ or the goals suggested in Lawrence Frank's study of "human wastage."¹⁷ It is understood, of course, that such themes can only be adopted when they clearly express a felt community need, or voice an unmistakable community interest. It may often be desirable for local planning groups to secure expert help with such technical matters as conducting surveys, appraising needs, and working out strategy for community-wide educational programs in which many groups and individuals will take part.

b. *With respect to the development of curriculum experiences.* Present trends in adult education have quite specific implications for the development of curriculum experiences. Among existing programs, those which seem to hold most promise for the future are those in which all parts of the curriculum are related to a set of values or purposes which are highly motivating, both for the program as a whole and for each of the separate activities. Each participating agency or person sees the relation of his part to the whole, and is proud to use all the

¹⁵ *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1940.

¹⁶ National Resources Planning Board, *National Resources Development. Report for 1942*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942.

¹⁷ National Resources Planning Board, *Human Conservation: The Story of Our Wasted Resources*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

resources and all the ingenuity he has to make teaching in the area for which he is responsible as effective as possible.

An example may serve to make more clear the point at issue. Elementary dressmaking may be taught as such, in a night-school class, without reference to anything beyond the immediate need for acquiring specific skills. When the teacher of such a course, however, has caught the bigness of an over-all plan for community education and sees the importance of her part in it, the whole experience is illuminated for her and for her students. The young war bride who has come to learn how to make her own clothes, learns also to be a better consumer and a more effective citizen. Her study of textiles, design, tools, and techniques is related to man's long struggle to meet his primary needs and to the values he has developed. Attitudes developed in such a course have, before now, led to changes in community practices. Such changes, taking place over periods of time, add up to "social progress," which is the major goal of all education.

This implies a unifying set of concepts around which the community program of adult education is planned and related. It is not implied that all aspects of the curriculum would develop at once. At one time, it may be important to concentrate emphasis in one area; again, in another. The program as a whole will develop unevenly, often slowly. Since progress is related to a central purpose, individual activities will take on more and more of their meaning from the general context in which they are rooted. Results will finally become apparent in changes taking place in the life of the community which are due to the influence of the program.

Dividing responsibility for setting up specific offerings within such a framework is a matter of continuous co-operative adjustment between the agencies involved, in the light of the resources available. For example; there may be a need in a given community for an adult-education center to which adults may bring problems of many kinds. A number of agencies may help with the planning and, perhaps, with the teaching or counseling.

Near Phoenix, Arizona, the State Board for Vocational Education is sponsoring a project of this type—an Educational Center for Farm Families which is in essence a co-operative, run by its own board of directors. Teachers are in charge of a cannery, a wood-working shop, a machine shop, and a dehydrating plant. Opportunities are provided for both group and individual instruction. Farm problems of all kinds are studied in the classes, produce is canned and dried, farm machinery is built and repaired. All activities are planned co-operatively by

members of the Center and the teaching staff. Such a project is a tremendous community asset under any circumstances. Its influence becomes much greater when it is part of an integrated curriculum, with certain basic concepts in agricultural education being emphasized by all agencies serving the area, and with each agency taking specific responsibility, by agreement with the rest, for developing those parts of the total plan which, at any given time, it is best able to handle.

c. With respect to methods and media for adult education. The "new" adult education will undoubtedly lead to the development and use of new methods and new tools. It would be unfortunate, however, if interest in these new means of instruction were to cause educators to forsake some of the principles of educational psychology that have been validated both by research and by experience. *All* methods and *all* media that help people to learn are important in adult education. Each is a tool especially adapted to certain uses. None can be used successfully unless it is used appropriately. A series of radio broadcasts, for example, cannot take the place of a well-planned, well-taught course in nutrition where the student's purpose is to master basic principles. On the other hand, the learning of these principles may be greatly facilitated through films, radio lectures, demonstrations, and exhibits.

The best results in adult education today are being achieved where there is the greatest variety and flexibility in arrangements, and where the projects undertaken are of immediate and vital concern to the participants, whether they relate to immediate personal or ultimate social goals. When people who want to learn help plan their own learning experiences so that they can make maximum use of opportunities they themselves have helped to create, they "co-operate" with enthusiasm.

d. With respect to evaluation. In the past, the need for evaluating past performance as a basis for planning next steps in adult education has been much too little emphasized. As co-operative programs develop, this need will be more widely recognized.

Each adult-education activity must be judged in terms of progress toward desired goals, including those sometimes called intangible. At times the most significant outcomes of a given experience are changes in attitudes, habits, or interests which are not so commonly measured as are changes in information or skills. Many of the evaluative instruments now available have been developed for day-school programs. There is increasing need for tests, inventories, questionnaires, and other

devices to give a more adequate appraisal of achievements in adult education.

In planning for the evaluation of an adult-education program or activity, it is important to bear in mind that the criteria by which success or failure will be estimated must be set up at the time the project or program is undertaken. Otherwise, valuable opportunities for collecting evidences of progress as work goes along will be irretrievably lost.

e. With respect to materials and working conditions. The growing tendency in adult education to deal directly with problems and concerns which are part of the immediate life experience of the student is already making some traditional ideas about materials and working conditions seem obsolete. Workshop techniques of teaching require appropriate instructional materials and workshop facilities for study—space to move about in; tables big enough to work on; comfortable chairs to sit on; proper lighting and ventilation; the right materials to work with; and equipment for quickly duplicating charts, outlines, directions, tables, or reports needed for immediate use. Creative thinking carried on in an intellectual vacuum seldom produces results that are very satisfying to anyone. Adult students, especially, have a right to much more “content” in the materials they are asked to study than most teachers are now able to provide. They need more factual information about the simple, everyday problems they have to deal with, given in a simple, interesting, straight-forward manner. They need more facts about local, state, national, and international conditions that affect their lives, presented so that not only the facts but also the implications are clear. They need to know what other people with problems like theirs are doing about them.

Many programs of adult education are trying to meet these needs in various ways. Some make quite extensive use of traveling art exhibits and libraries. Some have been able to make their own arrangements for collecting and distributing source materials from local, state, and federal agencies and organizations. Some actually take students out of the classroom altogether for the study of certain problems, making homes and communities the laboratories. A few educational agencies, like the Bureau of School Service at the University of Kentucky, are studying techniques for developing, locally, reading materials based on local interests and dealing with local needs.¹⁸ It is significant that, although these first Kentucky materials were prepared for children,

¹⁸ *Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service*. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky, College of Education.

parents soon insisted that they be allowed to use them too. The Seattle Public Schools have prepared a leaflet¹⁹ for parents which contains information, simply given, about children's basic needs. These pamphlets are being used throughout the city by schools, churches, social agencies, health agencies, and other organizations in touch with families.

f. With respect to the training of personnel. As programs of adult education tend to include a greater variety of learning experiences, many more teachers and leaders with a greater variety of teaching skills and abilities, and a high degree of personal adaptability, will obviously be needed. Where are these people coming from, and what provisions should be made for their training? This is so big a problem that one can do little more than mention it here. It involves the pre- and in-service training of professional teachers, the pre- and in-service training of volunteers, the in-service training of all personnel including professionals, other than teachers, who work with adults.

What about *pre-service training of teachers*? There seems to be an increasing tendency to expect day-school teachers to help with adult education. If elementary- or high-school teachers expect to teach adults as well as children, their pre-service training should include experiences that will give them a better understanding of people, including themselves; more effectiveness in personal and professional relationships; more ease in directing informal learning situations; more technical expertness in using the newer media of instruction; more skill in helping individual students discover and meet their needs. A special effort should be made by teacher-training institutions to single out prospective teachers with special aptitudes for community organization and add to their training whatever educational experiences are necessary to prepare them for the new co-ordinating positions in community programs of adult education now beginning to open up.

A great deal has been learned, in the past few years, about *in-service training for teachers and leaders*. The importance of providing for the growth of people in their work is daily becoming more apparent in all professions. It seems particularly necessary to provide systematic and continuous help for workers in adult education who want to widen their own horizons, increase their skills and improve their services.

There are many practical, interesting ways of studying "on the job." Staff meetings are more and more seen as opportunities for continuing professional education. Many colleges and universities are

¹⁹ Katherine Whiteside Taylor, *Parents! No One Can Take Your Place*. Seattle, Washington: The Seattle Public Schools, 1944 (leaflet).

providing helpful offerings both on and off campus and are organizing leadership courses to meet specific requests from community groups. Local workshops for community leaders, sponsored by colleges, universities, and state and local departments of education are now frequently held. In some places these workshops attract townspeople and exert a remarkably pervasive educational influence upon communities. They are more likely to be successful if they have been planned in relation to specific community problems or conditions with which local people want help than if they are just off-campus, catalog courses.

The *pre-service and in-service training of volunteers* is still on the educational frontier. Thousands of women have been trained for child care, home nursing, nutrition classes, and other responsibilities in connection with civilian war services. Usually the schools take on this task, sometimes in co-operation with other agencies such as the Red Cross, sometimes alone. A whole new range of possibilities for volunteer work in connection with the schools has opened up in places where boards of education have been courageous enough to experiment with the training of mother aides to help alleviate the teacher shortage. This plan has much to recommend it besides sheer expediency. As parents come to feel that schools respect their experience and want to share responsibility with them for the education of their children, education will become much more secure in its public relations than it is, in most places, at present.

The *in-service education of professional personnel, other than teachers*, is an increasingly important problem as educational programs become more functional, cutting across organizational and professional boundary lines. It is not easy for social workers, nurses, ministers, doctors, and other specialists to keep themselves up to date in areas where new discoveries are constantly leading to changes in points of view and practice. Most professional organizations feel responsible for helping members in their fields keep in touch with developments. Such groups are finding the colleges and universities of great assistance in planning conference courses and workshops. Perhaps the best-known experiment in co-operative in-service education is the Continuation Center at the University of Minnesota, where any group with problems to solve may apply for the use of the Center and the facilities and services that go with it. As many as sixty people can live and work in the Center building. The University and the sponsoring group make plans and arrangements jointly. Student fees go back into the workshops and conferences; the University provides space, equipment, and the services of faculty members as these are needed.

By way of summary, it may be said that the "new" adult education is making two major demands upon those responsible for the training of personnel: (1) a demand for pre-service education which develops people with imagination, creativeness, flexibility, and personal maturity as well as broad knowledge of subject matter, and (2) continuous in-service training which encourages the further development of these same attributes and at the same time makes it possible for leaders to receive expert assistance in the solution of problems they are actually facing and to keep constantly in touch with the best sources of information and inspiration in their chosen fields of work.

V. CONCLUSION

It has been assumed throughout this chapter that adult education means the continuing education of adults; that it gets its content and direction from the concerns, the problems, the interests of men and women who want to understand and meet more effectively the demands life makes upon them. It has further been assumed that the responsibility for providing adequately for this kind of education is a responsibility to be shared and discharged co-operatively by all agencies and organizations equipped to render educational service to adult groups.

Curriculum-making in this field of education has been presented as a creative experience in which students and teachers together set up objectives, make plans, and evaluate work as it goes along. The steps in such curriculum building have been fully analyzed and discussed in chapter v of this yearbook. A special effort has been made to show that curriculums in adult education can and should be developed in relation to ultimate social goals and persistent human values as well as to immediate, specific needs. A community program which each year offers a course, conference, lecture series, or forum on intercultural relations in order to educate public opinion on certain far-reaching issues involved in world peace is certainly no less practical or democratic than the program which revolves around a cannery. Man's deepest "need" is to understand his responsibility not only to himself, his family, and his neighbors, but also to all the people of the earth, with whose lives his own is now so intimately connected. The more sympathetically these wider relationships are interpreted, the greater will be the demand for more information about them. Adult education follows, but it must also lead.

The list (pp. 58-59) of problems or tasks facing this country after the war is a compilation from reports of a number of committees

especially delegated to make such suggestions. It is not a blueprint for postwar adult education, but a serious attempt to show the scope of the decisions which must be made by adults concerned in any way with the restoration and further development of our culture. Somewhere in this list every community in this country can find a problem which has special meaning for it. Adult education which helps individuals and communities to deal more intelligently and effectively with any one of them makes a contribution to the solution of all the others.

It has not been possible, in this chapter, to give many illustrations of work being done on these newer problems because they *are* new. On the other hand, many examples have been given of adult-education programs and projects dealing with present conditions in ways that will be just as effective when they are used to accomplish some of these other objectives. Agencies and organizations will find new resources, new ways of combining to meet new needs, as some are now doing to provide educational opportunities for returning soldiers or to study local possibilities for full employment.

In a deeper sense than ever before, the future of our country is in our hands.²⁰ The "rights and opportunities" we want "for ourselves and our children, now and when the war is over. . . . go beyond the political forms and freedoms for which our ancestors fought and which they handed on to us." This is "because we live in a new world in which the central problems come from new pressures of power, production, and population which our forefathers did not face."²¹ It is our responsibility as well as our privilege to seek the knowledge, the skills, the spiritual insights that will enable us to make creative use of our heritage in dealing with these problems, so that the future may be better for all people than either the present or the past. It is the high privilege of adult education to make sure, through fine leadership and well-planned service, that all men and women in our country have the guidance and the tools they will need for this task.

²⁰ Howard Y. McClusky, "The Community Approach to Adult Education," *University of Michigan, School of Education Bulletin*, XV (March, 1944), 84-87.

²¹ *Report of the National Resources Planning Board, op cit.*, "Introduction."

SECTION II
PROBLEMS OF CURRICULUM RECONSTRUCTION

CHAPTER V
GENERAL TECHNIQUES OF CURRICULUM PLANNING

HILDA TABA
University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

I. INTRODUCTION

Although planning for postwar education is one of the commonest of current topics, the methods by which schools may make more intelligent plans are rarely discussed. Educational literature is filled with proposals for administrative changes, such as control of education, serving new groups, equalizing educational opportunities, and providing work experience. Less is heard about the internal changes in educational programs, and perhaps wisely so, for many of the issues that will dictate these changes are not yet clear. Yet, the external reforms are important only to the extent that they make possible changes in the programs offered (22, 23, 24, 25, 36).

No one will doubt that curriculum revision for postwar education faces many serious problems, the solution of which may require a marked reorientation of time-honored procedures and principles. For example, there will be a demand for new content, where curriculum-makers will have to move in uncharted fields in selecting and organizing problems and topics. Already schools have introduced instruction about the "forgotten nations," now our allies and neighbors. Intercultural education is slowly gaining serious attention. Wartime developments in technology are forcing revisions in the teaching of science and mathematics.

In many areas fundamental changes have taken place in the basic orienting concepts, problems, and ideology. In consumer education, for example, the familiar thesis of the best bargain for the least money no longer holds for the teaching of intelligent consumership. A completely new orientation is emerging in the interpretation of national and international affairs and in many phases of history. In geography, new concepts of the relationship of resources to human affairs and new concepts of map projection are being developed. Classical eco-

nomics has been jolted out of the familiar framework of ideas by such wartime institutions as price control, management of manpower, and marshaling of natural resources. The ideals of democracy, equality of opportunity, freedom, and the basic concepts permeating our teaching of civics, history, and literature are acquiring a new meaning and are being pushed toward applications so far untouched in our schools. This suggests a tremendous job of reinterpretation and reallignment of ideas and concepts to produce an appropriate curriculum (12, 18, 29).

New tasks are forecast also. Radical changes in the groups education is to serve and in their needs are expected. The wartime reshuffling of population will introduce a greater than ever heterogeneity of background among students, calling for a sharper sensitivity in detecting and meeting personal and academic needs. Children from homes disrupted by war will bring new and increased problems for guidance and adjustment. Wartime adolescents, who have tasted a premature economic and moral independence, and the returning war workers and members of the armed forces will not fit into the usual pattern in academic or emotional background and educational needs. All of these groups will be unresponsive to the usual ways of discipline and the means of motivating them. It will be difficult to interest them in the usual academic subjects taught in the usual manner.

Above all, the curriculum will have to serve a wide range of new objectives. Though often criticized for its ineffectiveness, education is expected to play a major role in reorienting people to a peacetime world—reorienting young people as well as adults to changing work opportunities, developing intelligent international viewpoints, rebuilding attitudes toward nations and people.

These tasks will be thrust upon schools too rapidly for the usual processes of curriculum revision to be effective. Instead of the slow sequence of sifting ideas from experts via textbook writers and national curriculum groups to teacher training institutions, and thence to teachers, curriculum revision will have to be carried on increasingly by those in charge of school programs—teachers, supervisors, and administrators. Increasingly, also, curriculum revision will have to become a continuous process, in place of the "earthquake" method of placing revisions every ten years or so. Moreover, it is clear that increasing local adaptations in content and in procedures of teaching will be the order of the day, if the present trend toward community orientation and individualization of programs to serve the needs of given groups of learners is continued.

Under such circumstances, how can a sound curriculum and an adequate general education be assured? How can thoughtless, trivial, and hasty responses to pressure and fads be prevented?

Many a wartime program has illustrated the dangers of hasty and thoughtless innovations. New courses and activities have been added without eliminating any of the old ones, thus adding to the already critical congestion. New activities, notably the various defense and victory programs such as in health, nutrition, and physical training and in mathematics and science, have found their way into programs as isolated activities, overlapping many already in progress and thus disrupting continuity. The requirements of a sound general education were not always considered in meeting urgent war needs. Perspective has been distorted by unfounded criticisms as is the case with the teaching of the three R's. Marshaling dependable materials and sound ideas for new courses has been difficult, leading to trivial content. Spot news has often directed teaching Topics, notably on Latin America and on the background of the United Nations, have been introduced without regard for the maturity level or learning principles necessary for their effective treatment.

These difficulties will be multiplied in the postwar program. They cannot be obviated by "laying out" a standard curriculum for all—the usual way of meeting such problems. More attention should be given to the techniques of curriculum-making which assure soundness as well as flexibility, validity as well as imagination.

The committee realizes that means must be found to assure that new knowledge and research in fields basic to curriculum construction will flow into curriculum-making without dictating the exact pattern of either the selection or the organization. It proposes, however, to accomplish this end, not by outlining a curriculum in the new fields, but by emphasizing the *how*, namely, the techniques and procedures of sound curriculum thinking and planning and by only suggesting the problems and issues demanding attention in each of these areas.

This chapter will, therefore, attempt to outline the general techniques, principles, and procedures in curriculum-making applicable to curriculum construction on all levels of maturity and in any subject area. The subsequent chapters will illustrate these and suggest the appropriate applications to different areas of problems and of subject matter, as well as to different maturity levels.

II. SOME GENERAL ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT THE CURRICULUM AND CURRICULUM PLANNING

The educational process takes place in a three-way relationship, and, therefore, a three-way orientation is needed before its objectives

can be validly determined or before program planning can be undertaken. First, education takes place in a society. It must serve that society, induct the young into that society, and promote an intelligent understanding of that society. To some extent education has always served this function. We teach democratic ways of living because we are a democratic society. We teach about health according to the health needs and problems we see in our society. Our prevailing attitude toward the world determines what we teach about international relations and how we go about it. Social values, both current and permanent; social needs, both current and permanent; and problems, both current and permanent, in large part affect our programs. The problem is to keep this relationship valid, fresh, and up-to-date and to avoid serving needs that no longer exist or perpetuating values that have ceased to function. It is to this end that there is need for a continuous analysis of society and a continuous application of what is so learned in program-building.

Secondly, we educate people by changing them as individuals. These changes involve the so-called academic learning, the socializing of these individuals, and providing for their personal growth. For any of these purposes it is important to know what these individuals are like, what abilities and interests they have, how their learning can be most effectively mobilized, and what their growth needs are. It is therefore important in curriculum planning to use all available knowledge about the nature of the learners and the characteristics of the learning processes.

Finally, all learning experiences take place through some content or subject matter, whether this content is taught as an end in itself or as a means of promoting other desired changes in individuals. Each area of content, whether academic or otherwise, involves certain unique concepts, certain unique intellectual processes, and certain emotional ingredients useful to stimulate mental growth as prerequisites for learning the necessary skills and techniques or as builders of an outlook and orientation. To use effectively what this content can offer, it is necessary to cut through the conglomerate detail and to uncover these essential values and unique contributions.

Analyzing what are the essential ideas and concepts underlying the details of any content to be used in the curriculum and determining what these contribute either to essential knowledge or to general education is a serious obligation of curriculum-makers if our young people are to be spared useless and trivial learning.

These three elements represent the fundamental sources from which to derive valid educational objectives. Not only is it necessary

to utilize research and expert analysis in these three areas, but the ideas so garnered must be integrated into a balanced and coherent picture and evaluated in terms of a defensible framework of social, human, and educational values. Attention to any one of these elements to the exclusion of others usually results in a one-sided curriculum. Thus, exclusive attention to social needs and demands easily produces a curriculum deficient in personal growth and inappropriate for effective learning. Concentration on conventional content alone without reference to the psychological or social values and needs, produces a curriculum which is out of step with life's needs and the concerns and demands of young people. Attention to growth needs of individuals alone will promote a regrettable dichotomy between the conventional subjects and activities designed to serve the needs, or else will lead to a haphazard selection of ideas and facts to be taught as well as to an educationally unproductive treatment of them.

III. HOW CAN CURRICULUM PLANNERS BRING THESE CONSIDERATIONS INTO PLAY IN CURRICULUM PLANNING?

Difficulties in curriculum planning and the differences in approach to it usually spring from two sources. One of these is the inadequate use of available findings regarding the three elements described above. Usually, for example, there is a serious gap between what is known about social needs, young people, or various subject fields and the application of that knowledge in curriculum planning. This gap can be bridged by methods of curriculum planning which stimulate a more systematic use of available scholarship and analyses, which at the present is done less systematically than might be the case.

Another difficulty lies either in the absence of a philosophy of education or in a divergence or inconsistency in basic philosophic concepts which lead to differences in assumptions about the nature and role of the curriculum as well as to confusion in interpreting research data. There are, for example, disagreements regarding the emphasis to be placed on each of the three elements described above, hence differences in sensitivity toward each. Some groups are chiefly concerned with children, others with content, and still others with meeting social pressures. Differences in social orientation dictate which needs, which problems, which values stand uppermost, or which means are most effective in reaching desirable goals. For example, some people regard the major need of citizenship to be the understanding of and the acceptance of present institutions, while others would stress creative and critical reconsideration. The conflicts of opinion between the so-

called "essentialists" and those who would like to see emotional growth and social adjustment afforded equal consideration alongside growth in intellectual skills and knowledge illustrate differing concepts regarding the basic growth needs of young people (2, 10, 16, 17, 26, 28).

These disagreements are natural and in a sense healthy. In a democratic society it is both undesirable and impossible to have a standardized concept of educational and social values. The danger lies not so much in honest differences on values as in the failure to give conscious consideration to these in curriculum development and to weigh their relative significance. Curriculum planners also often disregard such knowledge as is available for clarification of values or do not apply in specific instances what they know and accept generally. To overcome these difficulties two major steps are needed in curriculum planning: First, a preliminary orientation of the persons engaged in planning to enhance their sensitivity to outstanding social needs and problems, needs of learners, and the possibilities within various areas of content, and to clarify their philosophical and psychological concepts. Second, a careful and consistent application of the principles and directives so developed in concrete tasks of curriculum planning and teaching.

A variety of sources are available for this preliminary orientation:

a. Studies of Society. Several types of studies of contemporary life are useful in curriculum planning. The general analytic accounts of trends and changes in institutions, such as in population movements, technological developments, social stratification, economic machinery, family structure, and so on, suggest pertinent areas for exploration and adjustments needed in educational procedures, and yield ideas regarding valid educational objectives. Similar analyses in all specific areas should orient educational planners regarding the basic up-to-date concepts and facts to be taught and should yield suggestions on ways in which a given area may contribute to the development of individuals (4, 5, 7).

For example, in consumer education, the analysis of shifts in economic arrangements affecting availability and distribution of goods suggests what future consumers need to understand. A survey of such things as rationing, price control, black markets and labor shortages suggests skills needed in wise consumership as well as the necessary changes in consumer attitudes and ethics. Considerations of such matters as postwar rehabilitation and inflation and their effects on standards of living would suggest revisions of some basic orienting concepts

in consumer education. Without such analyses, education is in danger of being guided by out-dated ideas and facts and of preparing young people for a world which no longer exists.

The analysis of social problems is another useful aspect of studies of society. Such problems as the dichotomy between the ideal of individual dignity and the individual's rather anonymous, mechanical role in economic life, conflicts and stresses in family life, difficulties of youth attaining proper economic and personal independence, the conflicts between the democratic ideal of life and the morality created by daily realities in attaining success, and the stresses and strains of a competitive society abounded in the prewar analyses. Findings of studies of the problems of the war and postwar worlds are only beginning to be accumulated (5, 11: 2, 28).

A continuous awareness of the problems of society is needed in curriculum construction for a realistic perspective of its objectives. A clear understanding of the foremost social problems may also serve to suggest focal points around which to organize classroom instruction. For example, a clear understanding of the family structure and problems in family living serves for better understanding of the learners and their life problems. It also suggests what in this area needs to be considered in school and which facts and understandings are likely to be both useful and educative, which attitudes most desirable.

Studies of society also contribute to the clarification of the basic democratic values. While one may assume the awareness of the general basic democratic tenets, such as equality of opportunity, the sanctity of the individual human being, and his freedoms and rights, these basic values appear in a new guise with each change in social arrangements and in each generation. We have seen the passing of the personal, individualistic concept of freedom. We have seen economic concepts of democratic equality added to the political one (7, 11). Today, with wartime institutions and with the expansion of interrelationships with other people, a constant vigilance is needed in reinterpreting these basic values and in extending their application in terms of here and now. International relations in the postwar world, intercultural and interracial relations within the United States as well as abroad, readjustments of economic facilities to serve all peoples and all persons, and new relationships of private individuals to the government are illustrations of crucial tests for expanding the applications of the fundamental tenets of democratic living. Curriculum planners need to acquaint themselves with the possibilities of reinterpreting these values and the new fields of their application. Particularly they need

to be aware of the problems blocking the acceptance and the understanding of these values, which limit their functioning in our arrangements for living, whether personal or institutional.

Analysis of these values and of the problems in applying and maintaining them is of great importance in clarifying what to work toward in education for democratic citizenship as well as in determining how to interpret the social implications of what is taught.

These pressures, problems, and values manifest themselves generally in the "great" society as well as in unique ways in local communities. Therefore, it is not enough for a curriculum-maker to acquaint himself with the general results of research or with analyses made by frontier thinkers. He needs also to study his own local community to uncover the unique manifestation of these problems, and, therefore, of the unique responsibilities of education in a given community. For example, while conservation of human and natural resources is the common problem for the "great" society, soil erosion may represent a specific illustration of that fundamental problem in one community, while preservation of mineral resources is most acute in the next one. Both can be used as gateways to the understanding of conservation.

b. Studies of Learners. Knowledge of the learners is pertinent in curriculum planning in at least two general ways. First, we must understand how learning takes place and the conditions that make it effective. Secondly, to provide for effective growth, it is necessary to be aware of the basic needs, concerns, motivations, and ambitions of the individual learners.

Studies, analyses, and theories are available on both scores. Granting any deficiencies in studies of learning, we know more about effective learning than we have put into curriculum building. Several facts of crucial importance in curriculum planning have been established about the nature of learning (6, 13). Perhaps most pregnant with implications is the fact that learning is always multiple. Human beings react as unified organisms and learn from all aspects of the total learning situation. When teaching is focused on one single desirable outcome, other less desirable or even negative learnings may take place at the same time. Thus, when the manipulation of mathematical processes is practiced on insignificant content, the mastery of these processes may be accompanied by an attitude that mathematics is silly and useless. While memorizing the names of presidents, students are also acquiring certain habits of work and certain ideas about what is important in American history, and developing certain intellectual tech-

niques. These may or may not be desirable. It is therefore important to examine the desirability of all of these outcomes and to plan for multiple desirable outcomes so as to avoid negative learning.

Several studies have demonstrated also that the effectiveness of learning is increased when a clear and reasonable relationship exists between the goals of learners and their learning activities. Planning for such relationships is therefore important.

Considerable experimentation has demonstrated the need for life relationships in maximizing learning. We have known for a long time, also, that skills, habits, and ideas are learned most effectively under circumstances similar to those under which they are used. The importance of concrete first-hand experience in developing meaningful abstract concepts has been indicated. These data suggest that instruction must either provide for linkage with experience pupils have already had or provide for appropriate first-hand experience.

A clearer picture of what is needed in developing intellectual skills, such as generalizing, interpreting facts, criticizing ideas, and applying facts and principles has emerged. Recent studies of learning have demonstrated the possibility of generalizing specific learning. They have shown that these abilities do not develop as automatic by-products of mastery of content, but require direct provision. Above all, a way has been shown toward initiating self-perpetuating mental processes permitting learning to go on beyond the school walls (6: chap. v, 13, 37, 40).

Many recent studies of children and young people have been conducted around the concept of needs or developmental tasks. These terms are interpreted in many ways. Some studies emphasize emotional factors, such as basic drives for acceptance and security, fears and compulsions, and their effects on learning. Others define "need" as a condition for learning or a prerequisite for further learning and thus speak of strengths and weaknesses in skills and academic achievement. Still others concentrate on "social needs" making the prerequisites for the good life, defining "need" as a gap between desired social ends and present conditions, such as the "need" for developing democratic citizenship in order to bridge the gap between democratic ideals and the current practice of democracy. Finally, there are studies of biological needs conceived as the essentials for maintaining life, such as needs for adequate nutrition to maintain healthy bodies.

These studies have revised many a naive concept about human behavior and learning. They have introduced consideration of emotional and social development. They have emphasized the importance

of personal security and social adjustment as educational objectives. They have vastly clarified the conditions for effective learning, such as the effects of the social and class status, and the effects of democratic and autocratic climate (1, 3, 8, 15, 19, 27, 38, 41). Of especial interest among the outcomes of these studies has been the elimination of the extremes in many a controversy between opposing theories of education, often carried on without benefit of facts. The conflict between the extremes of upholding the "doctrine of interest" as a sole directive in planning the curriculum and the position of the "essentialists" in upholding the sanctity of "subject organization with a complete disregard of the interests and needs of learners" is a case in point. Both seem to be fallacious. It seems that general concepts and ideas, which are the "essentials" of education, can be achieved by many alternative concrete learning experiences. By choosing the concrete materials according to the immediate concerns and interests of children, it is possible to induce greater effort, to get more meaningful learning without necessarily jeopardizing the "essentials" to be achieved. One can, for example, study the nature of communicable diseases by investigating almost any one of them. By using immediate interests as a springboard, that is, by choosing the diseases children are already concerned with, existing motivation can be capitalized, meanings can be made clearer, and life application of ideas and facts of communicable diseases is made possible. Further, interests themselves can and should be changed.

c. *Studies of Subject-matter Content.* Research conducted by content specialists and the content specialists themselves constitute a third source for ideas regarding educational objectives and the selection and organization of learning experiences.

Any content in any subject matter includes both fundamental knowledge which consists in the main of basic concepts, generalizations, and principles, and the details which, while useful in acquiring these more permanent values, are not themselves worth acquiring permanently. Each area of content also employs unique intellectual techniques and tools, the acquisition of which constitutes a part of general education. Quantitative precision and methods of attaining it is one of the unique contributions of mathematics. Developing a "time sense" in viewing civilization is one of the basic features of history. Laboratory sciences demonstrate the essentials of scientific method, and so on. These basic concepts and unique intellectual tools, and not the details, represent the "essentials" of any subject area, a fact not often recognized in the confused debates about the essentials

in curriculum planning. Whether these concepts, generalizations, and intellectual techniques are taught within conventional subjects, or whether they are used in some other organization, care must be taken to preserve their unique features and, thereby, their real contribution to the training of mind and feeling. For example, if the "essence" of a chemical formula is its exact application, this exactitude must not be violated, irrespective of whether that formula is learned in a systematic chemistry course or in connection with analyzing cosmetics. It is on this score that hasty innovations in combining subjects and in using projects, problems, and activities which combine ideas and facts from different subjects have sinned most often. The ideas and knowledge in these new projects have often been diluted to the point where they lose their educative value.

Content specialists can be useful in determining what these essentials are and how they can contribute to general education. They can give suggestions regarding the permanent ideas and values of a given field. Experts can also suggest which intellectual skills a given field can contribute to general education and in what unique ways the study of that field may serve to enhance knowledge of the world about us. The experts may have a distorted perspective caused by "occupational incapacity," that is, by the inability to see education as a whole. Nevertheless, a curriculum planner can use these and correct the distortions of emphasis. At any rate, reference to scholarship and expert analysis should help establish the essentials of content in suggesting the frame of reference in which to organize detailed facts so that they may be productive of permanently valuable ideas and intellectual skills.

It would be foolish to assume that teachers and curriculum-makers can conduct many of such studies themselves. Even the culling of educationally useful ideas from basic research is difficult and requires summary and translation before wide application can be expected. This task falls on research and planning groups in educational institutions. Many recent curriculum reports (6, 9, 21, 30, 31, 33) are giving increased attention to summarizing ideas from social analysis, child development, and content fields, and to developing these into a coherent theory of curriculum construction. However, it must be borne in mind that such materials will fall on deaf ears, unless school groups conduct research and experimentation themselves—however modest—to sensitize them to educational problems and to the possibilities of using general scholarship in solving these problems.

d. Formulating Objectives. The direction in which education is

expected to change people is its objectives. The nature of these objectives, whether implicit in the contemplated changes or explicitly conceived, usually determines in good part the nature of the curriculum and instruction. For this reason the task of formulating objectives is more than the formality many people assume.

The explorations described above will have suggested many objectives. Many of them will be general and complex and will need further specification. Others will be vague and will require clarification before they are meaningful enough to guide the selection and organization of curriculum experiences. Some will require a concerted effort of all branches of learning, while, for others, limited specialized activities may suffice. Some may be, or appear to be, in conflict with each other. All of them taken together will be too heterogeneous to provide adequate direction. For these reasons, a specific formulation and clarification of the objectives is usually the next task. Since objectives are supposed to guide the selection of content, as well as to help determine behavior reactions to that content, statements of objectives should be clear on both scores. For example, an objective in the area of health should do more than point out that the principles of nutrition need to be emphasized. It must also suggest these major principles and indicate whether they are to be remembered, related to principles in other areas, applied in solving new problems, or to serve some other function.

Usually there is little difficulty in specifying clearly the content to be covered. Indeed, content is often specified to the point of confusing rather than of clarifying the main emphasis. It is not uncommon, for example, to find every specific mode of transportation listed among the outcomes of the study of transportation, with no indication of the main point of study.

It is more difficult to indicate clearly the behavior processes to be developed. Often little distinction is made between such major types as mastery of knowledge, thinking, attitudes, interests, and skills. Yet these distinctions are fundamental, because different types of behavior require different types of experiences for their achievement. Experiences needed for mastery of manual skills are not suitable for developing thinking. Procedures leading to creating interests may not necessarily help with desired changes in attitudes. In teaching international relations, for example, it is important not to confuse the acquiring of information about various peoples and their governments with experiences needed to guarantee the development of sympathy or tolerance toward these governments, or the awareness of and concern with the problems of these peoples.

Specifying the concrete behavior components of a general objective is another problem none too successfully met in formulating objectives, particularly the so-called intangible objectives. Such general statements as clear thinking, democratic citizenship, and understanding the world mean little without a concrete breakdown into recognizable elements (13: 12, 32) and without indicating the general qualities that represent growth in those behaviors. Thinking, for example, may involve ability to interpret facts accurately, ability to detect assumptions, to distinguish facts from opinions, or ability to apply known facts and principles to new problems. Such statements, when related to a particular content, begin to be meaningful enough to suggest what needs to be done in instruction.

Since specificity of either the content or behavior may easily be carried so far as to lead to confusion, appropriate grouping contributes to maintaining a clear orientation. Many ways of stating and grouping objectives are used. They are often stated in terms of content and classified by subjects, such as understanding the French Revolution, or mastering mathematical skills. They may be stated in terms of required behavior reaction and classified by areas of life activities, life problems, or needs. Adjustment to *home life* and appreciation of *aesthetic values* represent such a grouping. The most useful form of statement is that which shows clearly the kind of behavior expected and the specific content to which that behavior applies, such as interpreting original data on taxation or applying principles of nutrition in planning meals.

It is easy to become absorbed in some phase of content or in some aspect of behavior and overlook others. Therefore, besides clarity and an appropriate degree of specificity, comprehensiveness is another important criterion. The most significant types of behavior reactions should be included among objectives for each unit, course of study, or curriculum program. Since each area of curriculum must contribute as fully as possible to all-around growth, an attempt should be made to think through its possible contribution to a variety of desirable objectives: information to be mastered, generalizations to be developed, types of critical evaluation of ideas needed, attitudes to be developed, and concerns, interests, and skills to be fostered.

IV. SELECTION OF CURRICULUM EXPERIENCES

The preliminary exploration will have suggested many more possibilities for curriculum experiences than any practical school program could contain. Therefore, the *selection* of what is to be taught is the next

step. That the curriculum is overcrowded is such a time-worn criticism as to appear trite. The content in many subject areas, notably world history, has been expanded to the point where only superficial knowledge is possible, and little or no time is available for thoughtful reflection and generalization. Diverse pressures, social demands, fads, and research findings have added subject upon subject without eliminating any, thus creating an impossible congestion. War programs have brought new subjects and new activities, and postwar programs promise further additions.

It is evident that selection is one of the most crucial problems in curriculum construction. The more adaptability and freedom needed, the greater the changes, the more important it becomes to develop and apply criteria of selection not only to choosing subjects and major areas of activities, but also to selecting the specific topics, units, or projects, and even to determining the particular learning experiences to be included in a day's lessons.

While it is presumptuous to set up a series of universal criteria, and while the particular set of criteria used by any one school or in any one subject field depend somewhat on the philosophy of that school or established principles in that field, certain widely accepted general principles of selection can be suggested here for illustrative purposes. Those described below have been derived from the explorations suggested in the preceding pages and the same courses can be used for developing additional ones.

It must also be pointed out that these criteria are of little use when applied singly, in isolation from each other. They should constitute, in a sense, successive screens, assuring that only experiences that are valid in terms of all pertinent considerations find their way into the curriculum. Furthermore, this combined screening in selecting curriculum experiences is very likely the only method to meet the changing demands of society upon learning and at the same time assure sound general education and adequate personal growth of children.

a. Curriculum Experiences Should Have Valid and Significant Content. Much of what we now have in our curriculum was introduced for some reason: it was thought to be good for mental training, it was considered essential in maintaining the continuity of culture, it was considered an essential prerequisite for something else necessary on the above grounds, or the like. Once established, tradition helped to maintain these subjects, even if the reasons for their introduction may have proved to be mistaken or had disappeared, as seems to be the case with ancient languages, and certain portions of mathematics.

Moreover, in view of the new demands and insights, the inclusion of any subject is the matter of its relative value, for it is not too far-fetched to maintain that the period of general education is too brief to include anything that cannot be justified as valid and significant.

Curriculum experiences can be justified on two levels. Some experiences are significant in themselves, in that they provide basic permanent knowledge, are necessary for achieving justifiable objectives of general education, or directly meet some demands of living. What these are exactly is difficult to establish in concrete instances. For example, there have been attempts to establish social validity by frequency counts of references in magazines and newspapers. Recently, the tendency has been to examine the pertinence of content and activities to persistent social problems and to the desired characteristics of human beings. Maintaining the unity and continuity of culture is an important consideration, as are the ideals and aims of society.

Other experiences receive their justification from constituting the necessary background or prerequisite for understanding something else or for achieving some other ends. For example, the study of history is often justified on the grounds that it is needed for an intelligent understanding of the present, or because it develops an orientation of mind necessary for dealing with the problems of the present culture. Much of mathematics is justified on the same ground. Often, certain experiences are introduced at lower levels of maturity in order to prepare them for understanding something more complex later. Thus, a study of simple machines in the elementary schools is supposed to prepare for the later understanding of the principles of modern technology.

Distinction between general and basic learning and the concrete details through which it is achieved is of particular importance in applying the criteria of validity and significance. It is often said that *what* is taught is irrelevant and that the *how* of teaching is the important thing. This is partly true when applied to detailed concrete aspects of the curriculum, but it is only a part truth even here. Effective teaching requires even a choice of detail to be significant by itself in addition to its contribution to general learning.

A particularly relevant application of this principle lies in the choice of the concrete illustrations by which general and permanent values are conveyed. Teaching about foods and food habits may, for example, be considered a valid and significant curriculum experience. Many ways are available for achieving the necessary generalization about foods and food habits and the understanding of their role in nutrition: one can study the foods and food habits of the South Sea

Islanders, analyze American food habits, or tackle the problem from the standpoint of feeding the Army. Yet, if there are vital, concrete things to be learned about our own food habits, the study of American food habits would seem to be the most adequate concrete content through which to develop these generalizations. Similarly, if the necessary principles of mechanics can be taught through illustrations from machines of today, these, rather than machines used in the past, represent a more significant illustration and a concrete content through which to teach what is to be known and understood about mechanics.

b. Learning Experiences Should Provide the Opportunity for Attaining a Wide Range of General Objectives of Growth. The job of the curriculum-maker is to select from among the possible learning experiences those that meet the criteria of significance and validity, and which at the same time provide opportunities for achieving the widest possible range of general growth objectives. For example, it is important to assure not only that significant new knowledge is acquired, but also that it is learned through such concrete content and in such a manner as to add to the development of better techniques of thinking, desirable attitudes and interests, and appropriate habits and skills. If it is important, for example, that students learn about resources and how they are managed, it is necessary to so plan this teaching that students improve their ability to interpret facts in general, to distinguish between valid and invalid data in general, to develop attitudes and understandings applicable to problems and issues beyond that of resources, and to further their skill in handling printed materials, and their skills of expression.

Achieving a range of general objectives through any specific experiences implies a careful weighing of each aspect of curriculum from the standpoint of its contribution to general objectives. This may sometimes modify the selection of experiences, at other times the choice of the instructional treatment.

c. Learning Experiences Should Be Appropriate to the Interests and Needs of Children. That one should begin the study of anything at the point closest to the interest of learners and that the special needs and weaknesses of the learners should be taken into account in teaching are the two principles most widely accepted in theory, but most commonly misunderstood or disregarded in practice. The role of interest particularly has been profusely misunderstood or exaggerated. Many educators, both those in favor of this principle and those against it, have assumed that the acceptance of this principle means that the whole curriculum, objectives as well as content, is to

be directed by the immediate whims and expressed interests of the learners.

A more reasonable application of this principle is exemplified by somewhat the following train of reasoning. We know from research that it is foolhardy to overlook the special needs, interests, weaknesses and strengths, and existing concerns of the learners in what is taught and how it is done. To ignore this would merely mean overlooking potent motivation for learning and would result in less effective learning. Furthermore, since one important task of education is to promote personal growth, the interests and needs of the learners themselves are one determinant of what should be in the curriculum.

On the other hand, we also know that the range of conscious interest is limited, and not an adequate basis for curriculum-making. Somehow sound education must build a bridge between existing motivation and concern of the learners and the essentials of education. This is by no means an insuperable task. General learnings, which for one reason or another constitute the "musts" or "essentials," can be achieved through a range of concrete activities and content, through a multitude of alternate detail. For example, various "revolutions" can serve as the means of bringing about an understanding of what a revolution is, how it comes about, and what its consequences are. By choosing concrete materials according to the interests of the learners one assures greater efficacy of learning without jeopardizing the desired general outcomes.

Furthermore, the needs and interests of learners are not beyond the power of education to change. Changing them is one of the important tasks of teaching. What needs to be kept in mind is that at any given time, unless there is real motivation, little desirable learning will take place. Therefore, curriculum-makers and teachers alike must plan for adapting their procedures to existing interests and needs, while endeavoring to change them to create better conditions for learning. "What is needed, therefore, is a way to institutionalize—either as curriculum or extra-curriculum activity—the kind of experiences which will reveal to the students *the value of those subjects which teachers and parents want the younger generation to learn*" (35).

It seems, therefore, that the principles of meeting the essential demands of good education and adapting education to the needs and interests of students are not necessarily in conflict with each other. Wise selection of the major experiences and of the details of learning activities can provide for both.

d. Learning Experiences Must Provide for Continuity and Sequen-

tial Development. Lack of continuity is one of the most widely recognized shortcomings of the present-day programs. A common criticism of the present-day curriculum is that subjects and activities follow each other without the slightest regard for unity of learning or relatedness of the concepts taught. The program is a mosaic of separate units and not a patterned, continuous design. This is true of the sequence of subjects, as well as of the topics and units within subjects. In the social sciences, for example, it is not uncommon to see such topics as agriculture, consumer problems, and taxation follow each other with little or no relation between them. Regardless of the merits of each separate topic, segmented and static learning is the inevitable result.

Discontinuity is usually increased when new subjects and activities are introduced to meet new needs. The war programs have already added to the discontinuity, and the postwar programs promise further discontinuity, unless curriculum-makers abandon the practice of curriculum revision by additive methods and take a new stock of the whole problem.

The problem of continuity has several angles. First, there is a need for continuity in the content or subject matter in the sense of providing a reasonable, logical basis for moving from one idea to the next one. The greater the relationship between concepts, ideas, and skills in successive topics or content, the greater is the possibility of a cumulative development of basic concepts. This applies to the sequence of subjects, as well as to the sequence within a subject. Somehow the requirements of the subject-matter coverage and of the continuity have to be reconciled and a sequence worked out that permits a cumulative building of related ideas and that is favorable to the development of generalizations which reach beyond a single topic.

Another aspect of continuity is the sequence of growth toward the generally recognized educational objectives. To develop adequate skills in thinking, desirable work habits, and appropriate attitudes requires a psychological sequence of experience to be carried out over long periods. The development of effective habits and techniques of investigating and communicating ideas illustrates the need for such a cumulative plan. The first task is that of learning to explore a variety of sources for facts and ideas. Students habituated to textbook assignments would surely be defeated by a sudden shift to the use of pamphlets, magazines, and first-hand sources. At this stage, the ability to locate ideas in various sources and report them is about all that can be expected, and the topics for investigation should be such as to permit a reasonable treatment with this skill.

Digesting facts and interpreting them constitute the next step, and investigations undertaken by students should be appropriate to this ability. Finally, it is possible to require students to undertake tasks which require coherent, logical development of ideas, such as certain types of argumentation for an idea, a criticism, or the exposition of a theory. If topics requiring this ability are undertaken at a time when students are not yet masters of the elementary techniques of research, poor mental habits are likely to develop because they will handle the ideas by inappropriate or ineffective techniques. On the other hand, without progressively more mature expectations, it is possible to go from subject to subject and topic to topic without any advance in the intellectual quality or maturity of understanding. A similar program to guide the sequence of learning experiences is needed for an effective achievement of all major educational objectives.

The third aspect of continuity is that of a sequence in maturity required in mastering ideas and in using them. This point is often completely overlooked in curriculum planning. Skills or ideas are acquired at one level and are not used or applied until years later. The result is that they are forgotten by the time they are needed, or an expensive "maintenance" program is required. Subjects taught on a lower level of maturity often require a greater capacity to generalize and to abstract than do the subjects taught on upper levels. For example, descriptive civics is often taught in the twelfth grade while subjects demanding greater abstraction and power to generalize are taught in grades where students are not yet capable of that level of thinking.

Adaptation of teaching techniques to maturity levels is not sufficient to meet the problem. Topics and content must be assessed also according to their maturity level and be selected and placed accordingly. The greater the diversity of the backgrounds, the more important this consideration. If postwar education is to face the great diversities of background likely to exist among the students, the problem of placing curriculum experiences so as to provide appropriate maturity sequence for all groups is going to be vital, indeed.

e. Learning Experiences Should Have the Maximum Relationship to Life and Living. Acquiring permanent knowledge in life relationships is about the only way of preventing "inert ideas"—a problem that has worried educators for some time. Abstractions which have no concrete counterparts in experience, either personal or social, block the learner's thinking in place of challenging it. A creative and challenging play of ideas, the exploration of new relationships, and the meaning of facts and ideas are usually stimulated when new ideas are woven into a

concrete and somewhat familiar context. Relating learning to living is, therefore, helpful in developing habits and techniques of thinking which are applicable not only to the immediate situations and problems in which they were developed, but also to the facts and problems with which learners may come into contact in the future.

Relating curriculum to life has always been considered the major function of education. This relationship, however, has frequently been so remote as to require a tortuous rationalization to establish it. The life relationship in many school subjects and daily learning pursuits has been practically imperceptible to both teachers and students. Those in charge of curriculum have not always been clear as to just what the significance of the content and activities of a school program is to the fundamental needs and concerns of society or to the fundamental intellectual and emotional concerns of the learners. Only the outstanding teachers, "who could strike sparks even from the soggiest subject matter," have been able to demonstrate to students the life value of what they are teaching.

The task of relating teaching to life needs to be attacked on several fronts. As was pointed out above, the very choice of the major areas of curriculum experience should be directed and justified by their contribution to life and living. The selection of significant behavior objectives should be guided by what is thought to be the important characteristic skills and abilities necessary for adequate living.

But, the relationship of curriculum to life needs must be more direct than has been the case heretofore, for we have come to recognize that the expectations of automatic transfer from academic learning situations to situations in which learning is to be used have been grossly overestimated. Numerous studies have demonstrated the monstrous rate of forgetting knowledge supposedly stored for future use and the inability of students to make life applications of earlier learning.

It seems clear that considerable thought is needed to provide learning situations, so that their relationship to living values, living concerns, and living problems is sufficiently clear to the learners, and to provide continued concrete application to life problems. This is not nearly as difficult to achieve as is often thought, because the potentialities of general and permanent learning are inherent in a variety of concrete life experiences. The significant ideas about race relationships, about the use of natural resources, about democratic government and scientific phenomena are general enough to be demonstrated through a variety of specific contexts. If these specific contexts and details are chosen in terms of their life meaning and are taught so as

to give learners opportunities to make life applications, learning experiences can be made both more meaningful and challenging without jeopardizing what could be called permanent and general learning. The mistake of some rash experiments in life-like education lies in the failure to distil general and permanent ideas and values from the immediate life situations or from detailed content. This does not imply that the so-called traditional subject matter is useless and is to be discarded, nor that many of the specific skills need not be mastered. It means only a greater effort in determining what is of permanent value in them and imagination in the ways to bring these into the experience of the learners.

Finally, students also must see the meaning and the value to themselves of what they learn. If a subject is of value and the students do not see it, the job of the school is to make that value clear to the students. Relatively few students are motivated by such secondary considerations as grades, college entrance, or a vague benefit to their future vocations. They need a more immediate sense of significance. For example, it is difficult to arouse enthusiasm or a sense of meaning and significance about the fine buildings of ancient Rome or the doings of Roman emperors in pupils who have brothers fighting in Italy. Similarly, mastering the "twenty-seven bones" of the skeleton has little sense, unless it is somehow related to what our body does or how it functions.

f. Learning Experiences Should Permit a Sufficient Variety of Learning Activities. We know that different individuals learn through different media with varying degrees of success. One student may successfully master generalizations about health or growth of plants from a book, another one may get the same thing more effectively from observation or experimentation. Different individuals also *need* different types of learning activities for their self-development. Thus, a shy person *needs* experience in group participation. A person given to over-generalization *needs* the corrective experience of studying precise data and drawing accurate inferences from them. All learners need to gain facility in using a sufficient range of media for mastering ideas and facts and for organizing and expressing ideas. Curriculum experiences should be chosen so as to permit a balanced range of learning activities, such as reading, observation, locating information in a variety of sources, reflection upon ideas and relating them, individual work, and work in committees and discussion groups. In addition, the curriculum units (whether topics, subjects, or "units") should be broad enough to permit sufficient individual variation in methods and techniques of

attacking them to permit each individual to use methods most effective for him. This principle is thus important both in the choice of learning units and in the conduct of classroom instruction.

V. ORGANIZING LEARNING EXPERIENCES

While sound selection assures sound curriculum content, appropriate organization of that content is needed to make effective learning possible. The basic principles of curriculum organization have been debated and experimented with for a long time (27). The main conflict lies in the opposition of the so-called "logical" principles of organization, namely, the systematic treatment of subject areas and the "psychological" organization which focuses on problems of life and interests of students, and consequently cuts across subject lines. Neither one of these extreme positions is sound. Recent experiments and research have shown that both the logic of ideas and a psychologically sound learning sequence need to be taken into account in organizing the curriculum. Furthermore, it seems clear that the logic of ideas and the psychological sequence of attaining that logic are not mutually exclusive. The organization of ideas in current textbooks or syllabi, both of which take their cues from the structure of scientific disciplines does not have a monopoly on logic or system. Ideas are capable of a variety of logical organizations, depending on purposes. The main difficulty in educational discussions of these problems is the failure to distinguish the logical organization of ideas as an end outcome and a way to achieve it. Much of the worry concerning "systematic" subject teaching revolves around the point at which the systematic apprehension of a subject or a topic is expected. It is possible, for example, to teach history backwards, yet come out in the end with an articulated sense of time sequences, which is the "logic" of history as a subject. Similarly, it is possible to study personal health problems so that in the end a coherent and systematic picture of relevant biological generalizations or principles is achieved.

The problems of organization appear at several levels. One of these is organizing the major sequences of subjects and topics; that is, the organization of the main structure of the program. On a more concrete level, the problem of organizing the sequence and relationships of content within a subject, a topic, or a unit of learning has to be faced. Finally, there is the question of organizing sequences of activities within a unit so as to produce adequate conditions for coherent and meaningful development of concepts, ideas, and skills. All of these problems of organization are in a measure related, inasmuch as

the major organizing scheme usually dictates to a certain extent the possible types of organization in the smaller units within it. Thus, for example, the relating of principles and ideas across various branches of science is more difficult when sciences are organized as separate subjects, each following its own rigidly determined sequence. Similarly, a related practice of all expression skills is practically impossible when instruction in language expression is organized by units on each separate element, such as a unit on the comma, manuscript writing, etc.

a. *Determining the Organizing Focus.* Determining the appropriate focus or the central organizing idea around which to assemble ideas, facts, or activities is an important and puzzling problem. The nature of this organizing focus usually determines which relationships stand out easily and which remain only marginal or are submerged altogether. The efficacy in achieving desired outcomes is also affected. For example, it is more difficult to develop awareness of problems and issues when the subject matter is organized structurally and descriptively. Certain types of application are impossible if the topics outlined set apart the ideas necessary for application. It is, therefore, important to consider the adequacy of the focal idea from the standpoint of the kinds of learning reactions and relationships it facilitates and those which it obscures.

No single focus is adequate for all purposes, as is assumed in heated debates about topical organization, activities, and "problem approach." Different types of focal ideas are needed, depending on the specific purposes of a unit of instruction. They can be found in the subject organization, as is the case when the history of the United States is examined from the standpoint of how the idea and implementation of democracy has grown. Similarly, biology can be organized either around sequential descriptive treatment of structural elements of plants and animals, around pertinent functions of all living things, or around important generalizations. The common difficulty with the subject organization is that relationships between facts and ideas from different disciplines are difficult to bring out.

—A different central organizing focus is needed when certain problems in areas of living, such as family life, health, or consumership are objects of instruction. In such courses often the focusing on elements of structural analysis, such as the history of family and the types of family organization are least adequate for the purposes they serve. For such courses it is important to discover the outstanding problems and the outstanding concepts in order to learn which relationships of ideas are most useful for centering learning activities. If, for example,

units on family life are taught for the purpose of better adjustment, the problems of adjustment should determine what is taught and how the ideas and facts are organized.

For some purposes the interests and needs of learners provide an appropriate organizing center. Facts about health, growth, and nutrition can be organized around the questions and concerns of the students and brought together in such a fashion that these questions and concerns are satisfied, while pertinent ideas and facts are not overlooked.

Often curriculum experiences are brought together in terms of some dominant objectives. Thus, many schools have attempted to teach propaganda analysis by developing a unit around skills needed for critical analysis of ideas. Units on thinking, how to study, and other similar skills are frequent. The difficulty of this type of focus is that often the content on which the respective skills and techniques are practiced has no unity or even no particular relevance, hence the training in the skill is academic and sterile.

One of the most debatable questions is whether the basic organization of the curriculum should be by problems and issues or by topics; or, as one high-school student remarked, "whether the background or the foreground is in the focus." The problems approach is gaining in recognition because the ability to solve problems has become a favored educational objective. This type of organization seems particularly suitable for contemporary content and for units requiring a background in several subjects, or in case of topics with unlimited detailed content. Under such circumstances the "problems" organization yields criteria by which to judge what is important to teach in a given unit and in what length or detail to treat it, one of the most vexing problems in developing units in new areas. In the case of descriptive topical titles, such as "Allied Nations," "Great Britain," "health," and "taxation," the sky is the limit as far as the details to be included are concerned. By formulating teaching units in terms of problems, such as how the Allied Nations can help each other in war, what possibilities there are for future co-operation among them, or how the common welfare is financed through taxes, etc., clearer lines can be drawn regarding what to teach within the given limitations of time.

b. Providing for Sequence and Continuity. An adequate sequence, both in terms of continuity of content and ideas, and in terms of sequential growth in mental skills and the maturity of the reactions required of students, enhances greatly the cumulative growth in ideas,

concepts, and skills. Without such continuity the efficacy of any simple learning experience is greatly minimized.

The sequential development of basic ideas and concepts is one of the aspects of curriculum continuity. Such ideas as democracy need to be referred to and reinterpreted again and again in different and increasingly mature contexts in order to be fully understood. Certain principles of science cannot be completely understood when touched upon but once. The planning of sequence in such cases means providing for recurring experiences or a continued emphasis. The consecutive units must advance toward new meanings but must provide for practice and enlargement of previous learning on an increasingly mature level. At present some provision is made for continued emphasis on basic ideas within the basic traditional subjects. But far less attention is devoted either to sequence or continuity of ideas in subjects which are new or units which draw on several bodies of subject matter.

Provision for growth in the complexity and maturity of the reactions required is another aspect of sequence. Curriculum experiences should be planned in such a way that they both require and help achieve the ability to understand increasingly complex material, the ability to interpret increasingly difficult facts with increasing accuracy, subtlety, and significance, and to master increasingly more effective techniques of expression. For example, in critical thinking even the young children can begin questioning simple types of evidence for its sufficiency for drawing certain conclusions. Step by step they should have experiences leading to examination of more complex forms of argumentation, criticism, and analysis of ideas. The development of social values may begin with the analysis of reactions to the immediate group and proceed gradually toward sensitivity to abstract social ideals and application of them in intricate social and human relationships. This involves long-term planning of curriculum experiences and a unified concept of growth throughout the school.

A third problem of sequence is posed by the psychology of learning. It is a commonplace to say that learning experiences must move from the concrete and familiar to the abstract and remote, from the emotionally and intellectually acceptable to the emotionally and intellectually new or foreign. A concrete application of this principle, however, is another story. The experiments tried in this direction, such as the concentric curriculum proceeding from home, community, and immediate environment to the nation and the world, have been either too formal or naïve even to stimulate an adequate exploration of what is abstract or remote for different maturity levels.

Obviously, the proximity in time and space is an insufficient criterion. Another fallacious assumption has been that the beginnings of things are simpler than the later developments in the same area. Thus, simpler machines, often nonexistent today, are taught ahead of present-day machines, the beginnings of history are mastered ahead of some present-day developments, and so on. In this area both further research and practical exploration are needed, particularly on problems of bringing the remote, abstract, and foreign into the radius of real and meaningful learning.

c. Providing for Adequate Scope. Learning experiences must be broad enough to bring students in touch with a range of significant areas of ideas and problems. A third problem of curriculum organization, therefore, is that of providing for adequate scope.

Scope or coverage, also, can be visualized in several dimensions. Covering the conventional subject areas has been uppermost in the minds of curriculum planners, and most schools assure for each student contact with such basic subjects as history, literature, science, and mathematics. The scope of topics or areas within each subject has been left more largely to textbook writers to determine.

As the idea of relating curriculum to life-needs grew, many curriculum programs, such as the Virginia curriculum, attempted to determine their scope by covering certain areas of living, such as home, community, health, vocations, etc. These topics recurred in the whole program from year to year. This concept of scope, however, seems too vague and guides the selection in such an indeterminate manner that in many cases it is merely a rationale for what has always been taught.

Recent studies of needs have added other categories to assure the comprehensiveness in the coverage of learning experiences. Thus, the publications of the Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association have attempted to compare the comprehensiveness of treatment in various subjects by reference to four major areas of human relations: personal, social, civic, and economic.

One may further think of scope in terms of providing experience for the significant growth needs or growth objectives. These needs may be defined either as shortcomings in achieving desired objectives, such as development of significant interests, attitudes, intellectual tools, and adjustment patterns, or as the psychological needs of personal development, such as the acquisition of sufficient emotional maturity and adequate self-confidence.

The problem of scope is a rather entangled one. Each particular concept of it, taken separately, has its limitations as well as its merits. No doubt, each major subject has something irreplaceable to contribute to the general education of young people, but very likely simple coverage of content in these areas will not insure that these significant facts are emphasized. It is true also that awareness of problems and tasks in various areas of living constitutes a necessary equipment for living. Therefore, these problems and tasks must be included in the span of general education. To provide for adequate personal development, provision must be made for a range of psychological needs. It is, therefore, evident that the considerations by which to determine the scope of the curriculum are not one but many. It seems, further, that the problem of scope transcends the coverage of subject matter. It involves, also, planning a sufficient variety of learning experiences and reactions, academic as well as nonacademic, in as well as out of school. Furthermore, the relationship of the program to whatever scheme of reference the scope represents should go beyond the superficial or arbitrary one which at present characterizes the application of the idea of scope, and thereby tends to make this idea a game at rationalizing verbal concepts in place of developing realistic relations.

d. Providing for Horizontal Continuity. Achieving integration or horizontal continuity in learning is the fourth problem in organizing the curriculum. We have come to recognize the fact that learning becomes more effective as well as more meaningful to the extent that there is an inter-relationship between various simultaneous learnings. Educational practice is in a perennial dilemma in that both effective focusing on some specific content, problem, or skill and unification of the manifold experiences are needed; that is, both specialization and integration must be provided. The former has been so overwhelmingly emphasized as to produce what has been called "the fatal disconnectedness" between subjects. Many a critic of contemporary education has pointed to the failure of education to develop minds which can bring anything but a specialized orientation to problems and issues.

This conflict between specialization and integration has been difficult to solve because its solution requires the simultaneous solution of several problems. First, each of the present subjects follows some organizing scheme, which has been elaborated over a long period of time, such as the chronological sequence in history, or periods and forms in literature. Bringing several subjects together involves disruption of these schemes of organization. Usually one subject becomes the "handmaiden" of another one. This is a real difficulty and not

merely a complaint of disgruntled teachers affected by reorganization. Secondly, whatever the demerits of subject organization, it has been systematic in a certain sense. To achieve a satisfactory systematic organization of new content in new relationships is not an easy task. Nor have the experimenters taken this task of developing an adequate organizing scheme seriously enough. This is partly because of a mistaken notion that the fallacies of academic subject organization extend to any organization.

Various solutions of this problem have been attempted, many of which have been limited to organizational reshuffling, and, therefore, have been both arbitrary and ineffective. Formal correlation of two subjects, such as English and social studies, usually results in more trouble than accomplishment because it attempts to relate ideas from several subject areas while retaining the internal organization of each subject, which is clearly an impossibility. Organizing subjects in the same area into broader fields seems more successful, mainly because the scope of the relationships is more limited. For many purposes, however, this variant of integration is insufficient.

Many recent experiments with the so-called "core" or unified curriculum have tried to organize learning experiences around some broad problems or concepts, and to draw together from any field whatever knowledge or ideas seem pertinent. For example, literature and history have been used as combined sources for understanding American life; mathematical skills are being taught in connection with concepts relevant to consumer education. The main advantage of this type of integration is that it permits relating ideas and skills in their natural relationships. If the topics and units are chosen adroitly, these relationships can approximate those prevailing in life situations, thus permitting a maximum of life application. Moreover, the organization of learning experiences is frankly determined by the nature of the problem or topic, and there is no attempt to weld the several different organizations of several different subjects (14, 20, 34).

While it seems quite possible to achieve a sufficient degree of systematic treatment of the essential knowledge or ideas and skills in such integrated programs, in practice this has not yet been accomplished, except on lower maturity levels. Various technical difficulties, such as techniques of co-operative planning by specialists in different subject fields, appropriate choice of focal topics or problems, and appropriate classroom procedures, must be solved before such integrated programs become acceptably proficient and sound.

e. The Formal Organization of Curriculum. The problem of the formal over-all structure of curriculum organization, such as organizing by subjects, by broad fields, correlation of two or more subjects, and the core or unified curriculum, has been at the heart of curriculum discussion of the past few decades. Several fallacies have attended both the discussion of the problem and actual decisions. Often the decisions regarding the over-all structure of the program have been made without sufficient consideration of the function the organization is to serve or what the content within that curriculum is to be. As a result, usually a paper organization with no realistic counterpart in practice is formed. Many a core program or correlated program is such only in name.

Another fallacy is that of assuming that all curriculum experiences are, or can be, brought together under some one single form of organization. Actually, these types of curriculum organization do not exist in pure form anywhere. Usually, different forms of basic organization are utilized together in the same program. For example, in a core curriculum history may at times be studied in chronological sequence. For other purposes historic materials may be used in connection with a topic or a problem and studied backwards. Language skills may be developed in connection with any activity requiring expression, yet at times sessions on formal grammar may occur. Therefore, it seems that the over-all, or the dominant forms of curriculum organization, should grow out of the search for various needs and problems of instruction and should be adapted to them. The important thing is whether this structure permits instruction and activities needed to serve the objectives of the school, and not how it can be classified. Since the nature of the general organization of the curriculum determines what can be done in the classroom, the dominant organization of the program should be flexible enough to permit a variety of specific approaches to curriculum and teaching. This cannot be done by an obstinate loyalty to a given form, no matter what its merits are.

VI. STEPS AND TASKS IN PLANNING SPECIFIC UNITS OF STUDY

The planning of the specific units represents essentially the working out of the specific implications of the general principles discussed in the preceding sections. Since this involves manifold considerations, employing systematic techniques in developing a unit helps to insure that all of these considerations receive adequate attention.

The first step in planning a unit is the survey of the ideas and suggestions regarding the needs and problems of life and of the stu-

dents with reference to the area with which the unit deals. At this point, in order to determine which problems, what kind of content, or which approach to each is most needed or likely to be most effective, use should be made of the ideas regarding the general needs and problems as well as of the knowledge regarding specific community needs and needs of the particular groups of learners. Unless such a specific application is made, the plans of relating the curriculum to life or to student concerns remain impractical dreams. Thus, in developing a unit or a program of study on international relations, it is necessary to determine what are the important social needs and problems that make it necessary to study this area. These needs and problems, concretely stated, will suggest which emphasis seems pertinent and which ideas are most relevant. Questions regarding what background students have in this field, what strengths and weaknesses there are in required work skills, what attitudes need to be developed or changed, and which psychological needs or concerns must be met should be raised and answered as adequately as available information permits.

The second step is to explore the concrete implications of the general objectives for the special topic or unit and to determine which unique objectives might be achieved by this special series of learning experiences. General statements of the objectives, such as the mastery of important information, the ability to apply facts and principles and to interpret data, the development of appropriate social democratic attitudes, and relevant skills must be made quite concrete with reference to the problem and content of the given unit, so as to indicate which particular skills, knowledges, and interests are most appropriate to emphasize, which particular types of data may be interpreted, which particular principles should be mastered, and to what types of problems they should be applied.

The next step is to explore the experiences appropriate for attaining these objectives. Often, there has been a hiatus between the general objectives and the particular experiences designed to attain them. Curriculum experiences also tend to concentrate on certain limited objectives only, partly because curriculum designers are not sufficiently clear about other objectives, partly because it is assumed that learning experiences good for one purpose automatically serve others, as, for example, that mastery of specific information automatically promotes thinking. Planning definite types of experiences for each of the major areas of objectives will help eliminate this difficulty.

In the light of these two first steps, it is possible to start sketching out the learning activities to be included in the unit. In planning these,

it is necessary to keep in mind their relevance to the problem at hand, and their helpfulness in promoting the achievement of the objectives. The separation of these two considerations has often led to difficulties in that the outlines merely represent a structural analysis of subject matter. It must be remembered that suggestions regarding how to interpret the subject matter or regarding specific learning activities helpful in achieving the specified objectives are as important for total learning as the outlines of content. Each one of these aspects needs to be outlined pretty carefully if rich and profitable learning experiences are to be provided. Thus, the ideas might be outlined in terms of topics to be covered, problems to be discussed, and generalizations or concepts to be developed. The list of activities may include suggestions regarding the points at which reading is profitable, investigations in the community might be carried out, individual research projects should be undertaken, and group discussion is needed. Each or any of these types of activities may cover the "subject," but each also provides for certain additional objectives more effectively than do others.

After outlining the ideas and the activities, it is important to stop and check the consistency of these with the objectives and with the problems and needs which lie at the base of the unit. As was pointed out above, the functioning curriculum must represent an integration of content, objectives, life needs, and pupil needs. Commonly, teachers and curriculum-makers start with some of these elements more clearly in mind than others. By focusing in turn on each of these elements separately as the preceding steps indicate, a clearer outline of each is made. At the same time, it is easy to be carried away by a segment of analysis, such as content, objectives, or activities, and to overlook the needed relationships. It is, therefore, important to examine the outlines of learning experiences and to see whether they provide consistent, adequate, and balanced opportunities for achieving the objectives, whether they are appropriate to developing sound ideas about subject or problem, whether they are suitable to the needs and interests of the learners, and whether they are adequately pointed toward significant life problems. Checking for a balance in variety of learning activities and for their suitability to the maturity level of the students is necessary also. Furthermore, a wise curriculum planner will at this time also consider the suitability of the program to the practical resources of the school and judge the outline of activities in terms of availability of materials, of teacher talent, and of the classroom techniques necessary for carrying on the work profitably.

The plans outlined by the above steps will have accumulated a variety of suggestions for instruction, and, in that sense, represent a source unit and not a teaching unit. Planning the actual teaching sequence is the next step. The latter involves mapping out the learning experiences in a psychologically effective sequence. Some things, such as the listing of generalizations to be taught, come first in the logical analysis of what is to be taught, yet they may have to come last in the learning sequence. Using such general psychological principles as proceeding from the concrete to the more abstract, from the personal and immediate to the impersonal and remote, from the practice of already mastered skills and techniques to new ones, it is possible to work out a general scheme for a sequence of teaching in any unit. This scheme, naturally, would have to be rather general, or present many alternatives, for it is important to bear in mind that only part of a teaching sequence can be determined in advance. Much of the planning must inevitably be done in the classroom with the help of the students as the program proceeds.

Some basic aspects of the skeleton sequence to be used as the basis of preplanning, however, can be pointed out. For example, the initial phase in teaching any unit should include an abundance of activities directed toward getting acquainted with the students, their attitudes, and their interests. Activities concerned with planning, analyzing problems, and opening up the issues should also be concentrated more heavily in an initial phase. The next phase involves predominantly activities directed toward gathering information and ideas, studying sources, carrying out projects, and analyzing and reflecting upon the ideas thus gained. These are followed by activities calling for organization, interpretation, and presentation of ideas and information. Activities requiring summary and application and personal evaluation usually are typical of the concluding experiences.

A word must be said about the types of instructional methods that are used in carrying out this series of activities. It is not uncommon for teachers to assume that one type of activity, such as writing, making reports, or the committee method, is equally suitable for all purposes and for all aspects of instruction. Often teachers who have relied exclusively upon textbook recitation turn with equal fervor toward the exclusive reliance on committee work, panels, or discussion. Realizing that each instructional technique has its limitations, being suitable for one purpose and inappropriate for another one, it is usually necessary to vary individual study, committee work, and discussion in such a way that there is a proper balance of each, and that each is

used according to its effectiveness in accomplishing a given aim. Planning, for example, is best done in group discussion, whereas locating facts is more effectively done through individual work.

The final step in planning a unit is to map out the types of evidence needed to appraise the effectiveness of the study. Teachers need at least two types of evidence: one, that needed to diagnose the status of children and to inform teachers about the specific needs, strengths, and weaknesses of the pupils as to their abilities, past achievement, and problems; and second, the evidence to reveal growth and changes (32: 17, vii, viii).

The information on growth toward the general objectives of the school is usually better secured on a school-wide basis and over longer periods of time. However, each teacher needs to add to this picture by gathering evidence on specific growth from learning experiences within the unit or subject. Thus, for example, obtaining the general information about changes in civic attitudes is the task for a school-wide, long-term evaluation program, but a teacher may add to that information evidence on attitudes toward government gathered in connection with the teaching of the unit on government.

In planning what evidence to gather and how to go about it, it must be borne in mind that besides the formal tests and the standardized or teacher-made tests, there are many other profitable sources of evidence. The work of students, such as their writing, reports, and discussion, can be preserved and analyzed, and records can be kept of reading done, of projects, or of significant behavior incidents. Common classroom observation yields much information, provided the teachers are clear about what they are looking for.

To guide the planning of evaluation, some general principles are useful. A plan for evaluation should cover as many types of objectives as are considered significant and desirable. It is usually better to have some evidence on a variety of significant objectives than to have much evidence on only one. The activities used for teaching should also be used for sources of evidence as frequently as possible. For example, writing assignments can be planned so as to provide exercises in writing or integrating ideas, as well as to reveal how students think or feel about the problem. Furthermore, it is important to emphasize that specific evaluation activities carried on by individuals in connection with specific subjects or units yield more information if they are in harmony with the whole plan of evaluation for the school. Of utmost importance is an agreement by all teachers regarding the objectives they are pursuing and regarding the behaviors which indicate achieve-

ment toward them. Without such agreement even the most efficient and comprehensive evidence will yield little that is helpful to the guidance of students or of teachers.

Needless to say, such an evaluation program requires co-operative planning of objectives and means of securing evidence. Above all, it demands a coherent co-operative interpretation of the results and of their implications for teaching and guidance.

VII. CONCLUSION

Curriculum-making is not a simple process of outlining the content of the subject matter to be taught. It involves analysis of important social needs and problems, of the nature, capacities, and needs of the learners, and understanding of the behavior characteristics of the students.

Whatever content is included in the curriculum must serve the ends revealed by the above analysis. Research into the above areas will be helpful in making sounder judgments about the fundamental tasks of education, but it will not yield the final answers as to the basic values which education is to serve. These are matters of judgment, and in a democratic society these judgments are made both by individual teachers and schools and by the society.

Therefore, this chapter has concentrated on the techniques helpful in making these judgments as sound and valid as possible. It is also hoped that the philosophic assumptions underlying these techniques are not so limiting as to make it impossible for teachers and curriculum-makers of varying orientation to use them. Each of the following chapters, being more concrete, is also richer in suggestions for the basic values and for the educational and social philosophy which should orient the teaching of each area discussed in this volume.

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SECTION III
NEW EMPHASES IN THE POSTWAR CURRICULUM

CHAPTER VI

BROADENING THE OBJECTIVES OF HEALTH EDUCATION

RUTH STRANG
Professor of Education
Teachers College, Columbia University
New York, New York

A healthy America in an improved world is not an idle dream. It can be realized. Through the contributions of the natural and humane sciences, the men, women, and children of tomorrow may become more fit to think, to work, to enjoy life, to contribute to the welfare of all.

Teachers everywhere are laying foundations for better health through education for marriage and family life, through preschool and parent education, through basic health education in the public school system, through college and university experiences, and through other vital youth and adult-education groups. Teachers' efforts are reinforced, stimulated, and implemented by public health services; by group-work and case-work agencies; and by social planning, social action, and research.

Far greater progress is possible. Health education can become more effective if it starts with people in their local communities. The first step is to understand their needs and potentialities, their ways of thinking, feeling, and acting, and their resistance to certain health practices that arise from their culture and tradition and from their unique personalities. With this understanding, it is possible, through co-operative effort, to create conditions that make wholesome living easy and natural.

I. ENDS IN VIEW

Progress in healthful living will be more rapid if the desired results are seen clearly and definitely. These ends in view may be stated as follows:

1. Healthy Children and Adolescents

The first end in view is individuals achieving the best health of which each is capable. Among the signs of good health are a general

appearance of physical fitness, emotional stability, vigor, and vitality, expressed in interest in life, alertness, happiness, and contentment. The healthy person's posture is appropriate to each activity, with head poised, chest leading, and whole body properly balanced.

He has strong, well-shaped bones, flat shoulder blades; strong, firm, well-developed muscles; and a moderate padding of fat. His teeth are well built and sound, his gums firm and pink, his hair shiny, and his skin clear. He has a good supply of hemoglobin and red blood cells that give the mucous membranes inside the mouth and eyelids a pinkish color and the skin a ruddy tinge after exercise and play out of doors.¹

A healthy child grows. His growth curve may fluctuate somewhat from month to month, but the trend, over a period of several months, is upward. He has sufficient strength and energy to perform the tasks suitable to his body structure and function. He has muscular strength and co-ordination "that permit him to make a physical adjustment with ease."² He recovers rapidly from fatigue.

The healthy child succumbs to a minimum of illness. He throws off colds easily. His appetite and digestion are good. He has no remediable defects. If he is unavoidably handicapped, he makes a good adjustment to his limitations; as he grows older he recognizes more clearly, and makes progress toward, his more acceptable and attainable self.

The healthy child accepts healthful routine as a matter of course. When opportunities for choice arise, he has enough background of knowledge to foresee probable consequences of different courses of action, and he has values that lead him to choose wisely.

At every age he has the desire and ability to protect others from infection and shows increasingly effective concern for the health and welfare of others.

2. A Home and Neighborhood Conducive to Healthful Living

The end in view for every child is a home that has adequate light, air, and provision for privacy; sanitary washing and toilet facilities; and a location in a neighborhood that has near-by parks and playgrounds for persons of all ages, space for gardens, freedom from noise

¹ Lydia J. Roberts, *The Road to Good Nutrition*, p. 3. Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Publication No. 270. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942.

² Leonard A. Larson, "Defining Physical Fitness, with Procedures for Its Measurement," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, XIII (January, 1942), 18-20.

and smoke, and safe supplies of water, milk, and other foods. Even more important are certain psychological factors. A home conducive to child health should be free from conditions that create serious anxiety, conflicts, hostility, feelings of guilt, and other emotions that may find outlets in disturbed bodily functioning which may become chronic and pathological.

3. A Healthful School

A school that reinforces and exemplifies the principles of healthful living which it attempts to teach is an essential foundation of health education.³ Recent surveys have shown extremely bad conditions, especially in rural schools—unsatisfactory lighting, “an old stove with large cracks in it,” overcrowded rooms, unsanitary outdoor toilets, and insufficient and unsafe water. The emotional atmosphere of the school, too, is of utmost importance. Schools should be happy places, full of opportunities for legitimate adventure. Instead of arousing anxieties and feelings of inferiority through unsuitable curriculums and overemphasis on competition, failure, and mistakes, the school should build self-confidence and afford each child the tonic of deserved success.

4. An Improved World

A still larger end in view is an improved world, in which there is not only freedom from want and freedom from fear but also opportunity for a more abundant life.

II. MEANS TO THE ENDS IN VIEW

Health education can contribute to the realization of these four goals through the experiences offered to students of all ages—in other words, through the curriculum. *Centers of interest, core curriculums, units of work, and integrated courses* represent efforts toward more unified learning and living. With the help of their teachers and public health officers, students discover some local need such as the production of more eggs, more gardens, the extermination of mosquitoes, the proper care of disabled veterans in the home, or suitable play space. Having recognized the need, they learn all they can about the problem, pool and evaluate their findings, make and carry out a practical plan of joint action. Each student, no matter how bright or how dull, how advanced or retarded, shares in the enterprise. When additional knowledge and skill are needed to carry forward some part of the project,

* Ruth M. Strang and Dean F. Smiley, *The Role of the Teacher in Health Education*, pp. 15-34. New York: Macmillan Co., 1941.

the teacher provides periods of special study and practice. Every student likewise shares in the success of the undertaking. Most important, each student grows in initiative and responsibility and in ability to get along with others as he works under skilful guidance on real health problems.

The Brockton, Massachusetts, High School Health Council, made up of one pupil representative from each homeroom, provides evidence that this theory of student planning and participation in the health program actually works. Since 1942 this group of students has successfully planned and carried out the Brockton High School's monthly health-education period. Members of the program committee of the Faculty Health Council meet monthly with the Student Health Council, in school time, and help outline procedures for presenting materials during the health-education period. In addition, the students search for supplementary popular materials and visual aids. Among the projects conducted by the Council are those orienting the students to the values of the school health examinations, improving school-lunch practices, reducing the number of colds, studying the causes and prevention of tuberculosis, and carrying on experiences in sanitation with respect to food handling. Many of the high-school boys and girls were employed in public eating places; this gave an opportunity for an immediate "carry on" of their school activity. The film, "Between the Cup and the Lip," was used in the assembly.

Through the Brockton High School Student Health Council, experiences are provided which aim to promote desirable health behavior, to develop desirable health attitudes and understandings, to give training in solving group health problems, and to give additional meaning to the slogan adopted by the Council: "Get Fit, Keep Fit."

The curricular aspect of health education is interwoven with health service and administration, with teaching methods and guidance, and with the selection and preparation of teachers. All these aspects obviously cannot be discussed in this chapter, which aims to focus attention on some of the experiences in elementary school, secondary school, and junior college through which the ideal of better health in a better world may be realized.

III. WARTIME PROGRESS

During the war certain favorable emphases in health education, most of which had their roots in earlier years, have been identified.*

* *Physical Fitness through Health Education for the Victory Corps*. Victory Corps Series Pamphlet No. 3. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

Some of these emphases grew out of the recognition that health is basic to efficiency; others from shortages of food and gasoline; still others from increased awareness of the implications of democratic living.

1. Efficiency through Health

This recognition that health is basic to efficiency has promoted the correction of physical defects, the prevention of accidents and illness, the more efficient planning of one's twenty-four-hour schedule. Efficiency in recruiting the Armed Forces was seriously decreased by rejection of registrants for defects of eyes and ears, musculo-skeletal and cardio-vascular defects, mental diseases, hernia, tuberculosis, and syphilis. This experience has led to increased efforts to have remediable physical defects corrected while boys are still in high school. Efficiency for service in the Armed Forces, especially in the Air Corps, made physical fitness highly important to many boys.

The need for efficiency in war industries likewise has called people's attention to the waste of manpower through accidents and preventable illness. It was estimated that 270 million days of work were lost in 1943 due to occupational disabilities and deaths.⁵ The loss of manpower through preventable illness has been estimated as approximately thirteen times as great as the loss through accidents. Large additional losses in production result from the decreased efficiency of persons who come to work half sick. While progress has been made in the recognition of this problem, its solution still lies in the future.

Another immediate need, during the war, was for the efficient budgeting of time. High-school students especially became more time-conscious because they had so much to do in so little time. In order to help students meet the demands for war service without seriously depleting their physical resources, counseling about daily schedules became necessary.

2. Stimulation of Interest in Nutrition

Food, too, is related to efficiency—to the ability to work harder for longer hours and to maintain the maximum of physical fitness under all conditions. Special attention has been given to Army rations, to lunches for workers in war industries, to meals for children whose mothers were working outside the home, to foods of equal nutritional value that could be substituted for rationed articles of diet. War has again given a tremendous impetus to the widespread practical application of the newer knowledge of nutrition.

⁵ National Safety Council, Inc., *Accident Facts*, p. 9. Chicago: National Safety Council (20 North Wacker Drive), 1944.

3. Rediscovery of Local Recreational Resources

In some instances, safety and satisfaction have been achieved through saner recreation. The rationing of gasoline for civilian use has been an asset in so far as it has resulted in a marked reduction of traffic accidents and has fostered arts and crafts and outdoor hobbies. People have found more healthful ways of spending a sunny afternoon than riding on and on through crowded highways. In many communities "teen-age canteens," initiated and managed by the young people themselves, have proved to be satisfying substitutes for commercially run roadhouses. Victory gardens have flourished. Although adults have, in many instances, taken responsibility for these gardens, the contribution of country children who worked on their parents' farms and of high-school and college students, 4-H Clubs, and other youth organizations has been impressive. For example, 4,423 girls worked in Girl Scout Farm Aid projects in 1943, contributing a total of 469,405 hours of work. During the same year Boy Scouts and leaders contributed more than one hundred million hours of labor on farms and gardens. In so far as these out-of-door experiences in doing essential work were satisfying to the children and young people who participated, their status as enjoyable out-of-door hobbies can be maintained during post-war years.

4. Application of Democratic Principles

The impetus to better health education through the application of democratic principles is manifested in the co-operative development of health education in the school, co-operative planning for better health in the community, and in programs of health counseling for the individual student. Many examples have been reported of co-operative planning by teacher and students in a single classroom; by principal, teachers, students, and parents in a school; and by representatives of schools, the public health services, other private and public agencies, and the lay public in cities, towns, and counties.

The essence of democracy—namely, the development of every person's best potentialities—is to be found in the increasing interest in the individualization of health education through health counseling. Leonard⁶ has described in detail how the counseling process grows naturally out of the initial health examination of high-school students and leads to further interviews with individuals or to group discussions of common problems. Counseling can help each student appraise his health

⁶ Margaret L. Leonard, *Health Counseling for Girls*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1944.

potentialities and figure out what is interfering with their realization. This process often leads him to consider the obstacles to wholesome living in his family life and in the neighborhood and to reflect on his conflicting loyalties and standards. One of the trends in counseling is that the individual takes more initiative and responsibility for his own guidance, keeps his own health records, makes his own plans for health improvement, and uses the counselor as a resource and as a stimulus to think through his relationships and problems.

All these reawakened and reinforced interests arising out of war conditions should be capitalized and adapted to new conditions. They represent possible trends in the right direction that should gain momentum in postwar health education.

IV. UNFAVORABLE WARTIME EMPHASES

While recognizing that progress has been made, persons concerned with health education should also be alert to certain undesirable emphases that have grown up or have been intensified under war conditions. Three of these tendencies may be specifically mentioned.

1. Exclusive Use of Wartime Appeals

Healthful living has been motivated too exclusively by the war itself; good health habits have been predominantly associated with war needs. If children and adolescents are induced to eat the right food, exercise out of doors, refrain from excesses of all kinds, and do other healthful things primarily to win the war, a let-down is to be expected. For this reason, temporary wartime appeals should be fused with post-war goals and more permanent motivations should be encouraged: the desirability of being well built, attractive in personal appearance, and able to take part in sports and other socially useful and enjoyable activities.

2. Neglect of Individualized Physical-education Programs

The obvious need for physical fitness in the armed forces has, in some situations, tended to decrease the normal and desirable emphasis on total fitness for individuals with widely different needs for strength and endurance. The physical-training program of the V-12 type, while well adapted to the needs of men in the armed forces, is not the most suitable program for a civilian who will lead a relatively sedentary life in an office or factory. Before the war, the preparation of individuals for total fitness, each according to his needs and his capacity to profit

by certain types of exercise as revealed by an adequate medical examination, involved variations ranging from rest in a convalescent room or court⁷ to strenuous exercises, games, and sports. During the war, in certain schools, a close relationship between health and physical education has been maintained. For example, in the New Trier Township High School, students who do not feel able to participate in physical activities discuss their health problems in a personal conference with their physical-education teacher. One teacher has the specific responsibility for the follow-up work on all doctor's excuses from physical education. At the beginning of the year, students are placed in physical-education groups in accord with the health classification and recommendation made by the school physician. In the same high school, during the senior year, a course co-ordinating body mechanics and health discussions has proved popular and valuable. Any tendency during wartime to depart from this ideal of individualized physical education combined, wherever possible, with the social values of games and sports is an undesirable trend to perpetuate in the post-war curriculum.

3. Shortage of Health Specialists

The withdrawal of medical, nursing, and dental personnel from the schools into the armed forces has depleted the schools of essential resources for health education. However, with the impetus that the war has given to the preparation of doctors, dentists, and nurses, expanded school health services should be available after demobilization. Here, of course, we meet the larger problem of how far it is necessary and wise to revamp the practice of medicine in this country in order to make modern diagnostic and therapeutic procedures available to all at a price they can pay.⁸

Undesirable emphases, augmented by the war, should without delay be veered in a peacetime direction.

V. POSTWAR HEALTH PROBLEMS

From this vantage point of awareness of wartime emphases, future developments in health education can be more accurately charted. It

⁷ Marion Brown, "The Health Program in University High School; a descriptive study of health service activities during one school year, made under the auspices of the Tuberculosis Association of Alameda County," *University High School Journal*, XVII (October, 1938), 1-65.

⁸ Homer Folks, "Health Is Social Security," *American Journal of Public Health*, XXXIV (February, 1944), 101-6.

is obvious that the postwar curriculum should be concerned with (a) an optimum diet for every person, (b) prevention and correction of remediable defects, (c) control of preventable disease, (d) improvement of mental health, (e) a scientific attitude toward health fads and get-healthy-quick schemes, (f) a healthful environment for every person, (g) effective social hygiene, (h) the solution of the alcohol problem, (i) steps to avert the probable increase of traffic accidents, and (j) plans to meet problems of rehabilitation and international health. Each of these topics will be treated, so far as space permits, from the standpoint of widely recognized needs and problems, possible local selections and adaptations, teaching sequence, and illustrative experiences or teaching units. Such a series of experiences will form the core of the health-education content of the curriculum.

Each of these areas needs to be treated only briefly here because they have been dealt with extensively and effectively in health courses of study and textbooks that have been based on extensive research. In their sections on "Things to do" or "Further activities," these books suggest an experience curriculum in health education; through their photographs, drawings, stories, anecdotes, and reports of scientific experiments, they reinforce classroom activities in building good attitudes with respect to healthful living. Used flexibly as one means of helping children and adolescents to solve personal and community health problems, well-constructed and skilfully illustrated published material is an already available aid to teachers. In their concern for special post-war problems, health educators should not neglect basic experiences that will help children at every stage of life build a sound foundation for the years to come.⁹

1. Obtaining an Optimum Diet

An optimum diet involves more than freedom from want, more than freedom from deficiency diseases. "A food supply which is already adequate may be so improved by enrichment in certain of its chemical factors that the normal life process is measurably bettered."¹⁰

Malnutrition is a major health problem in this country. It has been estimated that forty-five million people in the United States live below the nutritional safety line. In large areas in the South, the Appalachian Region, the Ozarks, the Great Plains, the cut-over areas of the Great Lakes Region, substantial dietary improvement is needed.

⁹ Association for Childhood Education, *Healthful Living for Children*. Washington: Association for Childhood Education (1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.), 1944.

¹⁰ Henry C. Sherman, *The Science of Nutrition*, p. 7. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943.

This is a problem we can do something about. Food production can be increased. The low economic level in some regions is being attacked in postwar economic planning. Something can also be done about "the backward art of spending money" and the waste that now decreases the amount of food actually consumed by 20 to 30 per cent. Finally, nutrition facts are available as a guide to the better utilization of available resources.

Knowledge of food values, however, is only an instrument to meet needs. In order that knowledge may function in the lives of people, it must be applied to local food problems. The procedures employed in the workshop in Puerto Rico are applicable in many local situations. This group of local leaders and experts thought through to the finish such questions as:

What is the nutritional problem here?

Why is poor nutrition so prevalent?

What are the people actually eating?

What are the food values in these diets?

How can these diets be most easily improved in terms of meals served?

Why are people unwilling to make these possible improvements?

What is being done and what can be done to improve conditions? For example, is there cultivable land that is not being used? Can more chickens, rabbits, and goats be raised?¹¹

Some years ago in Breathitt County, Kentucky, the recognition of serious malnutrition among the school children led to the establishment of an agricultural experiment station in the high school. More recently, significant work along this line has been sponsored by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation.¹² Objectives of improved home-economics and vocational-agriculture departments in each rural high school, a community steam cannery and hatchery, and an experimental nursery plot have been proposed.¹³ These are ways of attacking the local nutrition problem at the grass roots.

Psychological aspects are equally important. When food for an optimum diet is available, why do people not change their eating habits? What determines their choice of food? Do they "like what they

¹¹ Address given by Dr. Lydia Roberts before the Inter-departmental Nutrition Co-ordinating Committee, Washington, D. C., July 15, 1943.

¹² Maurice F. Seay and Leonard E. Meece, "Education for the Economic Front," *Kentucky School Journal*, January, 1943.

¹³ "Rural Education in Application," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXIII (April, 1944), 87-88.

eat," rather than "eat what they like"? Insight into people's attitudes toward foods, their reasons for eating or not eating certain foods, and family conflict with respect to food is essential to an effective nutrition program.¹⁴

In the primary grades nutrition can be taught in terms of food familiar to the children. For example, a group of slow-learning children in the first grade went marketing, prepared, cooked, and served, in a series of "parties," vegetables and other foods that could be served in their own homes. It was not long before every child in the class was eating the foods he had helped prepare and was wanting more. In a third grade, children who were coming to school without an adequate breakfast, in addition to preparing and serving simple breakfasts, conducted a feeding experiment with two rats of the same age, one of which had a diet of coffee and sweet buns; the other a diet of whole-wheat bread and milk.

In the intermediate grades children can take a still more active part in obtaining a better diet for themselves and for younger brothers and sisters. Guided by a knowledge of the practical and popular "basic seven" familiar foods with which an optimum diet can be built,¹⁵ these children can plan nutritious meals. They can also learn to buy food wisely, prevent waste in cooking and serving, and continue their war-time interest in gardening and poultry raising. A fifth grade applied its knowledge to the problem of improving the school lunches. This group exemplified democracy at work and the educational possibilities in a vital learning experience.¹⁶

In the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, pupils will continue to attack, with more reinforcement from science and the social studies, existing local nutrition problems—inadequate breakfasts and lunches, excessive sugar consumption, too little sleep and overfatigue, insufficient outdoor play and exercise.

In high-school classes students can make a still more scientific

¹⁴ Kurt Lewin, *A Group Test for Determining the Anchorage Points of Food Habits*. Washington: Committee on Food Habits, National Research Council (2101 Constitution Avenue).

¹⁵ Variouslly stated by nutrition authorities, the "basic seven" are essentially as follows: (1) oranges, tomatoes, grapefruit, raw cabbage or salad greens, (2) green and yellow vegetables, (3) potatoes and other vegetables and fruits, (4) milk and milk products, (5) meat, poultry, fish, or eggs; dried beans, peas, nuts, or peanut butter, (6) butter or margarine to which vitamin A has been added, and (7) natural whole-grain or enriched or restored bread and cereals.

¹⁶ Elsie Mabee, *Young Nutritionists in Action*. Teachers' Lesson Unit Series, No. 103. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.

study of foods. Able students will become interested in the complexity of this problem and the conditions that may affect the nutritional value of foods. They will find experimental evidence on the vitamin, mineral, and protein content of foods as it is affected by various methods of cultivation of plants and feeding of live-stock. They may also learn about the effects of the geographical areas in which the food is cultivated, of the methods of cooking, processing and storage, and of the degree of maturity of the plant products and the time of day when they are picked. A circular of the United States Department of Agriculture¹⁷ summarizes 298 references on this subject published within the last ten years. One group of students prepared a set of charts showing the composition of foods. The "share" method described by Taylor¹⁸ was useful in preparing these charts. It brought out vividly the contrasts in the food values of sugar and molasses, white bread and whole-wheat bread, beefsteak and liver, milk and soft drinks.

High-school students also need to understand the physiological, psychological, and social significance of their own growth and changes accompanying and following sexual maturity.¹⁹ They need to get a clear-eyed view of their problems of getting more sleep and food than usual during the preadolescent growth spurt, of selecting their own lunches, of handling the increased nervous stimulation of postwar conditions, and of resisting get-thin fads and unsound radio and magazine appeals. Adolescent boys and girls are looking ahead to successful marriage and vocation and, in these areas, good nutrition plays an important role. Their concern extends beyond themselves, their school, and their local community to nation-wide and world-wide nutrition problems.

Certain experiences may be shared by children and adults. For example, in providing a good school lunch, specialists, supervisors, parents, teachers, and children may all work together, each engaging in what constitutes for him an educational experience. The educational outcomes are many: standards of good meals are made concrete; knowledge of nutrition is gained; health teaching in classrooms is made

¹⁷ Lela E. Booher, Eva R. Hartzler, and Elizabeth M. Hewston, *A Compilation of the Vitamin Values of Foods in Relation to Processing and Other Variants*. United States Department of Agriculture Circular No. 638. Washington: Government Printing Office, May, 1942.

¹⁸ Clare Mae Taylor, *Food Values in Shares and Weights*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942.

¹⁹ *Adolescence*. Forty-third Yearbook National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1944.

practical. Those who participate have a feeling of "belongingness" and of being of worth. Closer co-operative relations between parents and school are established.

2. Prevention and Correction of Physical Defects

Oft-quoted draft figures have made obvious the high percentage of uncorrected physical defects in the country as a whole. Medical examinations reveal the situation in particular sections and schools

The path to correction is clear. According to the Astoria Health Study,²⁰ the percentage of corrections of physical defects in school children can be increased by the following means:

1. By improving teachers' daily observation of children so that they do not fail to report frequent absence, repeated colds, pronounced fatigue, inattention that may be due to impaired vision or hearing
2. By giving teachers medical counsel on these problems
3. By teacher and nurse together making a periodic appraisal of every child's health once or twice a year
4. By making routine health examinations of children entering the school and thorough health examinations of children specially referred for examination from any grade
5. By allocating definite responsibility for specified phases of the follow-up of the examination to each member of the school service staff
6. By utilizing more fully all available health services, including the private physician
7. By keeping records that will best serve the child

These experiences, in which pupils, teachers, parents, nurses, and physicians participate, point the way to further action, especially in the prevention of physical defects through prenatal supervision and care, the preparation of adolescent girls for child-bearing, and the prevention and early correction of defects during preschool years.

3. Control of Preventable Disease

Vital statistics show both favorable and unfavorable trends in the control of disease. From 1900 to 1935 there was a decrease in deaths from typhoid, diphtheria, cholera, yellow fever, and smallpox. The incidence of tuberculosis has been decreased by two-thirds since 1900. The increase in average life expectancy from forty-seven years in 1900 to over sixty-three years in 1940 creates both an opportunity and a problem. Children and young people will inevitably be affected by in-

²⁰ Dorothy B. Nyswander, *Solving School Health Problems*. The Astoria Demonstration Study. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1942.

capacitated persons in their homes who are likely to feel a tragic sense of uselessness.²¹

Although encouraging progress has been made during the past fifty years, unnecessary waste of human resources is still evident.²² On an average winter day approximately six million persons in the United States (about 5 per cent of the population) are disabled by illness. From 1900 to 1935 there has been an increase in deaths from heart disease and from cancer and other malignant tumors. Tuberculosis is on the increase again. Pneumonia and influenza, syphilis, whooping cough, measles, and malaria still constitute serious health problems. The common cold is still destructively common.

The expansion of air travel and the return of veterans who have not fully recovered from malaria may lead to the spread of tropical diseases in this country unless the necessary precautions are taken. Mosquitoes are clever stowaways. The story of the invasion of Brazil some years ago by the malaria-carrying *anopheles gambiae* mosquito from Africa is evidence that the same thing can happen in parts of this country, if adequate preventive safeguards are not maintained and if prompt diagnosis and proper treatment of ex-servicemen are not insured.²³

Statistics also suggest problems of disease prevention in age-groups. During the ages of five to nine years, deaths from accidents, pneumonia, and influenza still ranked highest in 1942, accidents being responsible for almost four times as many deaths as these two communicable diseases together. The early adolescent years, ten to fifteen, have the lowest death rate of all age periods, but in the later adolescent period, from fifteen to nineteen years, the death rate increases nearly 100 per cent. Deaths from accidents are highest, and tuberculosis, diseases of the heart, pneumonia-influenza, and appendicitis are next in order.

The curriculum should include experiences in actually reducing the

²¹ Edward J. Stueglitz, "Senescence and Industrial Efficiency," *Scientific Monthly*, LVIII (June, 1944), 410-14.

²² Lawrence K. Frank, *Human Conservation: The Story of Our Wasted Resources*. Washington: Government Printing Office, March, 1943.

²³ Raymond B. Fosdick, *The Rockefeller Foundation: A Review for 1943*, p. 24. New York: The Rockefeller Foundation, 1944. See also articles by Surgeon-General Thomas Parran; Wilbur A. Sawyer, Director of the International Health Division, the Rockefeller Foundation; and Major O. R. McCoy, Tropical Disease Control Section, Office of the Surgeon-General, United States Army, in the January, 1944, issue of the *American Journal of Public Health and the Nation's Health*. See also, Brigadier General James Stevens Simmons, "Wartime Importance of Tropical Diseases," *Scientific Monthly*, LIX (December, 1944), 405-13.

diseases that are prevalent in the local community. For example, in Bulloch County, Georgia, teachers asked themselves, "How can my teaching improve the lives of my pupils? What can I do to help my pupils find solutions to the problems of life they face in this community?" With the co-operation of the state health department, there being no local health department at the time, they discovered that 60 per cent of the school population suffered from hookworm. Representatives from the health department discussed all angles of the hookworm problem with the zone committees. They supplied literature and films for teachers to use in their classrooms. Pupils, in turn, told their parents what they had learned. With the help of the health department and local physicians, plans were made for treating infected children and adults and for preventing further soil pollution. From the fall of 1936 to the spring of 1940 the incidence of hookworm among school children was reduced from 60 per cent to 27.7 per cent.

Another example of co-operation among old and young, school staff and public health agencies in the solution of local health problems comes from Obion County, Tennessee.²⁴ The Health Education Program originated with the Obion County Family-Life Society, which has been actively engaged in community betterment since 1938. Each year it has sponsored some major project. In 1941 the project was a series of nutrition clinics. As a result of these clinics, there was a demand for nutrition study groups in 1942.

The next year the health program, under the chairmanship of a school principal, who had been working closely with the county health department, was broader in scope. The county health officer conducted a leadership training class at the county seat for representatives of each of the ten consolidated school districts, taking up each week one outstanding health problem of the county. These representatives, in turn, called meetings in their own localities to consider these problems or others more pertinent. After the first four county meetings, the representatives' reports showed that 2,200 persons had attended the local meetings.

These kinds of extension of the public health program into the schools, or—if you look at it from the school side—the extension of the school health curriculum into the community, are admirable in providing for parent and pupil representation, for carrying the influence of public health experts into local communities which they could not reach in person, and for giving in-service health education to principals and teachers through membership on committees, participation in the

²⁴ George James (director), "Report on Health Education Program, Obion-Lake Health District, Tennessee."

central meetings, and responsibility for leadership in their local communities.

Still another example of community-orientated school health education is found in the ninth-grade class in the Washington Junior High School, Nashville, Tennessee, which under the leadership of their teacher, Mrs. Virgie E. Mason, set out to learn what people in their neighborhood really knew about tuberculosis. In order to get this information they interviewed 143 persons of different ages, educational backgrounds, and occupations. These students were shocked by the lack of correct information revealed by some of the answers. They recommended that vivid posters, moving pictures, pamphlets, and educational programs be employed to portray the truth about the cause and cure of tuberculosis. Each student promised to return to the home he had surveyed and, through pleasant conversation, correct false impressions about tuberculosis.

Among members of the community who may contribute to disease prevention and control are veterans who have learned many health precautions that are applicable to civilian life. They may also make mature high-school and junior-college students more aware of worldwide postwar public health programs.

4. Improvement of Mental Health

The recent increase in the number of beds for patients in mental hospitals and the rejection of more than 10 per cent of our population of draft age because of unsolved emotional problems are evidences of prevalence of mental disorder. The high casualties among the men who have a high sense of duty and responsibility and who are capable of withstanding the rigorous pressures on the fighting fronts further reduces the percentage of emotional stability in the total population. The strains to which men in the armed forces have been subjected, the probable lack of understanding and appreciation of returned veterans, the inadequate provision for their adjustment to civilian life—these and other factors lead one to expect an increase in mental disorders and emotional problems among adults, which, in turn, will affect children and adolescents.

In the early adolescent age-group there are few mental breakdowns serious enough to require admission to state hospitals for mental disorder; but in the later adolescent group, from fifteen to nineteen years of age, commitments to mental hospitals in one state increased almost tenfold.

To cope with this problem, the school can provide mental-hygiene experiences such as the following: .

1. In every classroom a friendly, happy atmosphere in which every child has a sense of belonging, of being worth something to others, of being accepted by his teacher and by his classmates.
2. In every classroom, opportunities for each child to discover and develop his special abilities, to work and play wholeheartedly without unnecessary interruption or interference, to forget himself in working with others for a common purpose, to meet failure and criticism constructively.
3. Adequate guidance of individual pupils in the handling of their emotional difficulties.
4. Group experiences in high school that will help the potential parents of the generation of children to be born in the postwar period to acquire techniques of living that will permit a more adequate growth process for their children.

5. A Scientific Attitude toward Health Fads and Get-healthy-quick Schemes

False statements involving common fads and fallacies, when presented in a test, are marked true by more than half of the students in the seventh to the twelfth grades. Persons seem to persist in their personal and cultural prejudices and are obviously influenced by commercial advertising. Although there is some decrease in error during high-school years, it is not large enough to indicate much progress in critical thinking. A common misconception among pupils is that "the information we learn now will always be true." This multiple-choice response on a health-knowledge test was marked "correct" by about 90 per cent of the subjects in junior and senior high school grades.

Evidence of this kind indicates that health education has not included certain important experiences—for example, acquaintance with the history of scientific discoveries. From many concrete accounts of recent advances in medicine, such as the development of the sulfonamide drugs and penicillin, students should gain an appreciation that the frontiers of health knowledge are never stationary—that "facts march." Students also need more experience in proceeding from the concrete to useful generalizations or principles. It is out of this background of thoroughly comprehended relations that insight leading to the solution of new problems arises.

Still another type of experience is one which high-school students especially enjoy—the analysis of propaganda. Appraisal of radio and magazine advertisements frequently leads students to authentic sources of health knowledge as a check on the statements presented in these popular media.

6. Creating a Healthful Environment for Everyone

A brief description of a home and school environment conducive to health has been given on pages 117-18. The "dream city" described by

Henry J. Kaiser²⁵ is no flight of fancy, although it is far from present reality. It has been estimated that 4,000,000 rural homes have no excreta disposal facilities or are served by insanitary toilets, and that about 3,600,000 rural homes need new or improved water supplies.²⁶ Only 8.5 per cent of the farmhouses have flush toilets as compared with 85 per cent of all urban dwellings; about 30 per cent of the rural homes have water in the house as compared with 95 per cent of urban houses; about 25 per cent in rural areas have electricity for lighting as compared with 95 per cent of urban homes. A considerable number of people in rural and urban America have never been decently housed.

Several factors presage postwar housing developments. The birth rate has increased during the war. Families who have been sharing accommodations with their immediate relatives will want new homes of their own. After the war, labor and building materials will be abundant. Both private enterprise and government agencies are interested in housing as a means of providing employment for the vast number of demobilized men skilled in the building arts.

Certain improvements can be made as soon as people see conditions as they really are—as soon as they stop and say, "Let's just look at this schoolroom (or home) as though we were here for the first time." In many rural communities, parents, pupils, and teachers, through their own labor and the use of resources at hand, have transformed a dingy, ugly schoolhouse into a clean, light, airy, attractive, and sanitary daytime home for children. They have built lunchrooms and equipment, made sanitary toilets, and provided playgrounds and equipment. Joint effort of this kind has educational, social, and emotional values for the participants, who often apply the same methods to the improvement of their own homes. Unless children and adults work together in improving local health conditions, there will be conflicts between parents and children, as well as frustration on the part of children who learn about healthful ways of living only to be confronted with conditions that make health impossible. In this area, the task of health education is to provide experiences through which children will learn to effect desirable changes in their environment, live healthfully in it, and get satisfaction from so doing.

In the elementary-school years, experiences in healthful daily living continue to be the core of health education. During high-school years,

²⁵ Henry J. Kaiser, "Building the Future," *Survey Graphic*, XXXIII (April, 1944), 199.

²⁶ Joseph W. Mountin, "The Evolving Pattern of Tomorrow's Health: I, Prerequisites to Improved Public Health," *American Journal of Public Health*, XXXIII (December, 1943), 1401-7.

students should have an increasingly large share in creating a healthful home, school, and neighborhood.

7. Effective Social Hygiene

Social hygiene should be related to good health in general and viewed in its larger setting of birth, life, death, and social responsibility. It should be presented as a positive factor in the postwar world where there are tasks that only men and women together can accomplish. In the postwar period, effective sex education will be needed more than ever for several reasons: Abnormal separation of the sexes has brought about an increased tendency toward promiscuity. Different standards of sex conduct in some foreign populations where our troops are located will tend to change our standards. The success of sulfonamides and other prophylactics in preventing venereal infection may result in the stressing of prophylaxis to the neglect of genetic and psychological considerations. However, a more scientific attitude toward the treatment of venereal disease is in itself a positive factor. From October 1, 1942, through June, 1943, "over 55,000 men infected with venereal disease have been taken into the Army, hospitalized until noninfectious, given adequate treatment and turned over as functioning members of the Army."

In the primary grades, questions should be answered and problems handled on an individual basis in a matter-of-fact way.²⁷ In the intermediate grades correct information may be given before children begin to get erroneous information from sources outside of school. This, of course, must be done skilfully, for the attitudes developed are more important than the facts.

In the tenth grade at the Fieldston Ethical Culture School in New York a course in biology was built around the general concept of progressive change in all organisms as they go through life. A unit on the physiological changes through the life span and another unit on genetics were included. Biographical movies and books were read; a study was made of human birth and infant mortality rates; and changes in plans for marriage, homemaking, and vocations brought about by the war were made to relate physiological and psychological development to social pressures and community responsibilities.

8. The Alcohol Problem

According to the United States Department of Commerce, Americans spent more than \$6,000,000,000 for liquor during 1943, an average of

²⁷ Child Study Association of America, *Sex Education, Facts and Attitudes*. New York: Child Study Association of America (221 West 57th Street), 1940.

\$46 for every man, woman, and child in the United States. This amount is more than twice the expenditure for schools and represents an increase of 80 per cent over that of 1939. If the sale of alcoholic beverages has thus increased during the war, when there is a shortage of manpower, food materials, and transportation facilities, a much larger increase may be expected during postwar years. Already the ground work for promoting the sale of liquor after the war has been systematically laid.

Certain reasons for decreasing rather than promoting the sale of alcoholic beverages are well supported by science, economics, and sociology. First, there are individual differences in susceptibility to alcoholic excesses. Some persons who have a low tolerance for anxiety and frustration seek relief from these factors in the narcotic effect of alcohol. Physiological as well as psychological factors, at present not fully recognized, lead certain individuals from moderation to excess. Although the large majority of persons are not in danger of alcoholic addiction, they have some social responsibility for the susceptible minority.

Another reason for the reduction of the use of alcohol after the war, when a marked increase in automobile and airplane travel is to be expected, is the well-established relationship between alcohol and accidents. "Slightly more than 42.0 per cent of the drivers who were involved in accidents had a concentration of alcohol in their blood of 0.07 per cent or more as contrasted with 4.6 per cent of the general sample of drivers. . . . The drinking pedestrian, too, is a traffic menace."²⁸

A third reason for checking the present increase in the sale of alcoholic beverages is economic. "Careful investigations in the cities of York and Edinburgh, in typical working-class districts, seem to indicate that . . . drink is the predominant cause of secondary poverty, i.e., poverty where the total earnings of a family would be sufficient . . . were it not that some portion is diverted to wasteful expenditure."²⁹

A fourth reason is to be found in case studies reported by psychiatrists and social workers, which indicate the complex relationships between alcoholism and predisposition to crime, criminal acts, destitution, family maladjustment, neglect of children, alcoholic psychosis, and other pathological conditions.

In view of these reasons for discouraging the sale of a commodity

²⁸ Howard W. Haggard and E. M. Jellinek, *Alcohol Explored*, pp. 137-38, 140. Garden City, New York: Doubleday-Doran & Co., Inc., 1942.

²⁹ H. Cecil Heath, "The Beveridge Report and the Drink Problem," *British Journal of Inebriety*, XLI (July-October, 1943), 32, 33.

that serves no essential social purpose and, in individual cases, results in family disorganization, progressive mental deterioration, and alcoholic psychoses, the postwar health-education curriculum should include experiences that will enable students to form sound generalizations about the problems. Experiences such as the following are suggested for students who are mentally and socially ready for them:

1. An intensive study of the methods used by those who wish to promote the sale of alcoholic beverages—advertisements in newspapers, magazines, public vehicles, and billboards, and over the radio, that present drinking as normal, desirable, and a sign of sophistication; an analysis of the appeals used—the desire to “belong,” to have prestige, to be socially successful
2. Trips that give mature students firsthand experience with the seamy side of the problem in contrast with the associations presented in advertisements
3. A critical review of authentic sources of information on the many-sided aspects of the problem³⁰
4. A study of the points of view and training rules advocated by coaches and athletic directors, and discussions with local physical-education directors.

If health education is to make any progress in the solution of the alcohol problem, it must do two things: (a) educate society away from its present ambivalent attitude of amused toleration and half-hearted condemnation of drinking and (b) guide each individual “toward the most advantageous utilization of his assets”³¹ so that he will have no need for escape from frustration.

9. Probable Increase of Traffic Accidents

Mortality statistics, already quoted, showing accidents as the highest cause of death for elementary-school children and adolescents, justify a strong postwar emphasis on safety education. In the postwar world something must be done about the approximately one hundred thousand accidental deaths and nearly ten million nonfatal accidental injuries that occur in this country each year. The prevention of accidents at home, in school, and in industry needs effective attention in the curriculum. Only one aspect of the total safety-education problem—namely, traffic accidents—will be mentioned here. Health education will have to cope with the health liabilities and capitalize the health potentialities of the ubiquitous automobile and airplane of the postwar era.

Experiences relating to safety on the street and in cars should be

³⁰ Such as the references mentioned in this section and the reports of the Scientific Committee, Research Council on Problems of Alcohol; the Laboratory of Applied Physiology, Yale University; Haven Emerson's *Alcohol and Man*; the *Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol*; and the *British Journal of Inebriety*.

³¹ E. M. Jellinek, “The Alcohol Problem: Formulations and Attitudes,” *Religious Education*, XXXIX (January-February, 1944), 9-17.

included in the curriculum in each grade. In the primary grades, excursions and trips furnish opportunities to discuss safety beforehand, to practice the rules agreed upon, and to discuss them after the trip. Going to and from school offers daily opportunities for safety education.

As children begin to ride bicycles, intensive demonstration, instruction, and practice in safe bicycle riding should be included in the health-education program.

Safe places to play automatically eliminate many traffic accidents. A practical safety project reported by the Girl Scouts in Flint, Michigan, involved the organization of over a hundred backyard playgrounds on a city-wide basis. Parents were canvassed to secure the play yards; supervisors investigated those offered and conferred with the owners; mothers agreed to be at home while the playgrounds were being used; equipment was made by fathers and older brothers and sisters; and senior Girl Scouts attended a short training course where they learned about the behavior of younger children and activities suited for them.³²

Senior boys and girls, ready for their first driving license, need intensive instruction in the social as well as the mechanical aspects of good driving. A study of local accidents and a campaign to reduce accidents in every class in the school arouse the initiative and interest of students. With skilful teaching they begin to see that "safety can be fun," that safety is synonymous with skill, and that the prevention of accidents is itself an adventure.³³

10. Need for Rehabilitation and International Health

Rehabilitation of devastated countries emphasizes the world-wide significance of health. International co-operation in the prevention of certain communicable diseases has already been mentioned. There should be an international committee for stamping out disease at its sources, for improving nutrition, for disseminating knowledge as the people are ready for it, and for aiding people in every country to develop to the full their resources for eradicating disease and raising the level of health. Food policies may either lead to future world wars or contribute to world peace.

After World War I more people died of starvation and disease than had been killed during the four years of fighting. Malnutrition among the millions of war-dislocated peoples will again be a severe problem, requiring education as well as food supplies.³⁴ A major postwar task

³² *Report on Health and Safety Project of the Girl Scouts, 1939-1942*. New York: Girl Scouts of America (155 East 44th Street), 1944.

³³ Herbert James Stack and E. B. Stiebrecht, *Education for Safe Living*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942.

³⁴ Melville D. Mackenzie, *Medical Relief in Europe: Questions for Immediate Study*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942.

is that of feeding the hungry and healing the sick. "Modern science now makes plenty possible everywhere in the world. Raising standards of living in backward areas of the world will augment the rising tide of prosperity everywhere." In fact, all the problems that have been considered in this chapter have international ramifications. "The fellowship of research and the common language of science and learning can be a strong base on which to build a coherent and integrated world."³⁵ Peace brings with it the opportunity to shift from the war effort to the health effort.

VI. EVALUATION

Evaluation is a process that can best be done *with* rather than *to* the individuals concerned. If it is carried on co-operatively, the process of appraising health education is likely to bring improvement, because the teachers themselves gain understanding of the good and poor features of their instruction and acquire an impetus to improve.

Evaluation of a health program should be made in the light of the purposes or goals the group hope to achieve. It therefore follows that the first step in evaluation is to describe the objectives to be achieved in a given situation.

Evidence of success takes two main forms—first and most important, desirable changes in the students and in the community. Changes in the individual may be ascertained by observation, tests, interviews, health examinations, and students' self-appraisal, all unified through the case study. Changes in the school environment and in the community may be ascertained by simple surveys of health conditions—ventilation, lighting, drinking water, toilet facilities, opportunity for wholesome recreation, provisions for prevention of disease, and diet.

Another approach to evaluation is through an analysis of teachers' methods in terms of the best theory of health instruction. Teachers can rate their techniques on a scale that gives a series of pictures of what would generally be recognized as good, poor, and indifferent procedures.³⁶

If evaluation is co-operative and aims to ascertain whether the purposes of health education are realized, it becomes an intrinsic part of the teaching process, not something apart from it. Students, teachers, and administrators all have a share in the realistic periodic appraisal of the functioning of the health-education content of the curriculum.

³⁵ Raymond B. Fosdick, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

³⁶ Ruth M. Strang, Ruth E. Grout, and Dorothy G. Wiehl, "Evaluation of a Rural School Health Education Project," *The Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly*, XV (October, 1937), 355-70.

CHAPTER VII

PROVIDING WORK AND SERVICE EXPERIENCE FOR POSTWAR YOUTH

WARREN C. SEYFERT
Director of the Laboratory School
University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

If it is agreed that the school must accept responsibility for aiding young people to define and solve their contemporary problems more adequately and to lay the ground work for more satisfying solutions of their problems-in-prospect, and if it is further agreed that the school should use whatever means are at its disposal to help boys and girls with their problem-solving activities, whether or not these means are within the compass of the school's customary range of action, work and service experiences on a comprehensive basis must be a part of the curriculum of the modern school.

Adults from time immemorial have held the belief that work is "good for" growing boys and girls. Our parents and their parents before them were ordinarily not precise in their definitions of the benefits, actual or hoped for, to be derived from jobs for young people in the home or on the farm or in the office or shop; and many of the claimed consequences would now be held to be undesirable in the light of present-day knowledge of human needs and social values. But even when allowance is made for errors in judgment as to values and for the crudeness of the appraisal of results of work experience, the hardy persistence through the years of the idea that by work, physical and mental, boys and girls may acquire abilities and dispositions hardly come by through any other means indicates that the idea has a substantial basis in fact. It may be presumed that the failure of organized education in recent years to give appropriate consideration to the possibilities of work experience is to be attributed more largely to the pressure of other educational areas seemingly more in need of immediate attention than to any disbelief in the worth of such experience. Many of these other areas still hold their imperatives, but work and service experiences hold so much educative promise that they can no longer be passed

over lightly by men and women who seek to expand and improve our developmental services on behalf of boys and girls.

Before we can set about making the optimum use of work and service experience in our schools, two obvious questions need consideration. First, what contributions to the development of young people can work and service experiences make? Second, why should the school concern itself with the providing and supervising of such experiences, especially work experiences, when they are the vital substances of which most out-of-school life is composed and seem to be available merely for the asking? These two questions are not independent, though they may be considered separately for ease of discussion.

I. NATURE OF THE SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITY

Until very recently efforts of people concerned with the welfare of boys and girls have been focused largely on problems pertaining to the exploitation of child labor for the personal advantage of the adult employer. Although the victory is by no means complete in the United States, the battle progresses favorably. Of necessity, shielding boys and girls against exploitation in the labor market has meant reducing in number and character the opportunities which are available to young people to obtain work experience. Furthermore, economic conditions in prewar years were such as to exclude most boys and girls from employment in order that such jobs as were available could be held by adults, for whom the economic need was apparently greater than the educational needs of boys and girls and preadults. It seems safe to predict that much the same situation with respect to job opportunities will return and be the normal condition in postwar years. The changing character of employment, especially in urban centers, greater desire and more frequent opportunity for higher education of the usual sort, and social pressure in certain social strata against having one's children work have all helped to decrease the frequency with which, "in the normal course of events," young people will obtain direct contact with the world of work during their school years. The conclusion seems to be that if work experience is actually something which all adolescents should have, seeing that they obtain it must be made the responsibility of some agent of society. Past experience shows that without assistance a majority of our young people are unlikely to have a chance to profit from early contacts with labor, and that of those who do have the contacts many will benefit little except in a financial way because they do not have the advice and supervision, without which wider benefits are usually not forthcoming.

The average American community looks to its school system for leadership in all activities which have to do with the general welfare of its children. Work and service experiences clearly are activities of this sort. There is sufficient interest present or in the making in such experiences for young people to make it reasonable to believe that if our schools overlook this possibility they will be made available and be supervised through other community agencies. Though the intrusion of nonschool organizations into the picture need not necessarily be viewed with great alarm, it would seem to be an inefficient method of expanding educational opportunity for our young people. Duplication of effort, inevitable administrative friction, and ineffectiveness because of but partial concern with the individual boy and girl are a few of the more obvious reasons why it seems advisable to urge that the school make itself the dynamic force behind work experience plans and practices for young people in its own locality. It is not to be assumed that the school must accept sole responsibility for developing and operating work experiences. In the very nature of the situation this is an impossibility since all of the major openings for these experiences, and for most service experiences, lie outside the school both physically and administratively. Extensive co-operation from many persons and agencies is imperative if the full worth of work and service are to be realized. None the less, the school seems in every way to be the logical agency for organizing and directing such co-operative endeavors.

The foregoing discussion has taken for granted that the educational opportunities related to work and service experiences are sufficient to justify the school's bringing them within the compass of its concern. It is necessary, though, to be more specific about the nature of these opportunities in order to have a basis for the practical business of curriculum development; but before considering the educational purposes of work and service, a slight digression is in order. Thus far, work and service have been treated as aspects of one major area of living from which learning experiences may be drawn. Though this is theoretically sound, practically it is helpful to make some distinction between work activities and service activities. In one sense all work is service and all service is work. Colloquially speaking, however, there is a substantial distinction between work and service. As we shall see, this distinction is based not so much on the tasks which are involved as upon the conditions surrounding the doing of the tasks and the individual's intent in undertaking them.

Popularly, work is thought of as a job done for money or an equivalent return and in which the desire for financial gain is a primary mo-

tive. Service activities, on the other hand, are those carried on freely by the individual for the benefit of a group or community without financial recompense as a part of the individual's contribution to the maintenance of satisfying and constructive group living. This distinction between work and service on the basis of motive and return is a rough one, to be sure. It does not care for many lines of activity which combine large elements of both work and service; for example, the missionary would seldom select his life work except for its boundless opportunities to be helpful to mankind. Moreover, not infrequently related activities are carried on by different persons for some of whom the activity is work and for others of whom it is service in the sense used here. One thinks here immediately of duties being carried by men and women in behalf of the U S O. and the Red Cross. But though the proposed distinction between work and service is only approximate, it is one which is readily perceived and should be adequate for our present purposes.

II. THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF WORK EXPERIENCE

Quite naturally when work is considered in connection with educational affairs, attention focusses straightway on its evident occupational training values. Such values surely are not to be overlooked or slighted. But in many respects the contributions which work experience makes to our broader educational ends are of greater significance. That is to say, in bringing work activities into the educational program, due regard must be given to their potentialities for both general and vocational education.

a. Providing Vocational Guidance. Making plans for earning a living is a problem with which every adolescent boy and girl must deal. Helpful as vicarious experience may be in solving this problem, direct contacts with the world of work provide a sounder and more convincing basis for the decisions which ultimately must be made. Just any work experience under any conditions will not be especially helpful to this end. Many jobs can be misleading or limiting in the outlook they give the young worker. Without advice and counsel a boy may permit the monetary satisfaction associated with a particular job to blind him to other job opportunities which he ought to explore while he is still relatively free to do so. Without help he may never learn of remote and infrequent work opportunities which would be more useful to him in his search for a solution to his life-work problem.

✓ Through carefully selected work opportunities boys and girls have an unsurpassed chance to explore first-hand some of the vocational

fields in which they make their careers. At the same time they may more readily try out and examine their own occupational talents and dispositions. Observations on the job provide a realistic basis for thinking about and discussing the many questions which must be answered if the larger problem of selecting and preparing for one's life work is to be skilfully solved. Work experience, of course, does not eliminate or reduce the desirability of other guidance techniques; rather, it adds another important resource to be employed by young people and their advisers in working out an adequate adjustment to the economic necessities of life. The guidance values in work experience do not need to be strongly argued, for they are evident; but it must be stressed that these values will be brought out fully only if both work and worker are carefully selected and directed.

b. Developing Marketable Occupational Skills. Many young people during their secondary-school years come to final decisions as to the major occupational areas in which they wish to make their careers and the type of work by means of which they will seek to enter those areas. Carefully guided work experiences will not only be of help in arriving at wise tentative decisions, they can extend the scope of the actual training for the job which the school itself may offer, and they can give the boy or girl a chance to practice his vocational skills in a more realistic occupational environment than can be provided within the walls of the school. Moreover, these out-of-school job experiences may help the adolescent to check again the wisdom of his original job decision while it is still possible to change the decision without serious inconvenience. The vocational-education programs in our schools are often criticized because they do not stress production levels and other characteristics of the regular job. Whether or not they can and should do so is another matter. But it does seem clear that young workers ought to have some early contacts with normal working conditions. School-supervised work experience is one promising means for giving these contacts.

Here again work experience should not be viewed as a substitute for other vocational training methods but rather as an extension of the means being used to give such training. In recent years the most effective vocational training plans seen in operation in our schools have made regular use of job experience outside the school shop or classroom—on the farm, in the store, in the factory, and in the office. What is being proposed here is the opening of this educational outlet to all pupils instead of to only a few who may elect a special plan of vocational education in our schools. Furthermore, it is to be observed

that inevitably the school itself can give job training in comparatively few areas, while a work experience program using all of the resources of the community for occupational training suffers no such restrictions.

c. Developing Good Work Habits and Attitudes. General observation of modern young people at work seems to support the belief that their last concern is good work habits and attitudes; that, in their view, good habits and attitudes are not worth getting and keeping. It presumably is unfair to the large majority of our boys and girls to suppose that they really subscribe to this point of view. If their job attitudes are poor it is likely that they have had no chance to learn by first-hand experience the bearing that attitudes and work habits have on job satisfaction. To be sure, they probably have been told by their elders of the necessity for regularity, application, industry, thoroughness, and the like, when working for and with others; but listening and discussion, when not based on direct experience, are notoriously ineffectual implements in character development. On a job where sympathetic supervision is provided, the young worker can be quickly helped to see, through direct impact upon his own comfort and welfare, the importance of acceptable habits and attitudes, and can be successfully encouraged to develop these attributes.

d. Engendering a Feeling of Self-respect and Personal Integrity Through the product he makes and the services he renders, the young worker is contributing to the needs and welfare of others. He is producing an article which someone else wants and can use. Other people are depending upon him as he in turn depends upon their labors. Though his financial income may be slight and his home ties still close, his income can give him, in some measure, the feeling of independence, which is an indispensable element in the process of maturing. Modern young men and women have had but limited opportunities in recent years to prove to themselves and to society that they are people of consequence, that what they can do and what they feel are really important to some one—leaving out of account the phenomenal and undeniable sacrifices of these young people in the war years. Work experience alone cannot give every adolescent a feeling of personal worth and security; but under wise leadership it will help many youths to acquire a feeling of being “someone who counts.”

It may be saying the same thing in other words to point out the assistance which well-planned work experiences can give young people in making the necessary transition from the dependency of childhood to the relative independence of adult life. Earning a living, or a part thereof, is one commonly accepted symbol of social and economic ma-

turity. Work experience under the school's supervision permits the sense of maturity to develop while some desirable childhood controls are still operative.

e. Training for Co-operative Endeavor. The normal processes of school and community living offer numerous opportunities for helping boys and girls to sense the importance of co-operative endeavor and to acquire the skills basic to successful co-operation. But especially in school surroundings it may be difficult to bring the consequences of an unco-operative, selfish spirit home to many boys and girls in clear and convincing fashion. Group projects in our schools frequently are felt by pupils to be artificial in character with the penalties of an unco-operative attitude and the rewards of an active social conscience too slight to be strong motivating influences. The same thing can, of course, be true of work on the job; but, in the main, a job for which one is paid a fair wage appeals to young people as the "real thing." Experiences based on situations of accepted consequence inevitably are more powerful educative influences than are situations which lack such face-value validity. Obviously, if work experiences are to promote good habits and attitudes of social living, the experiences must be such as to place a premium upon such habits and attitudes. Jobs and employers must be selected with care; and by means of discussions based on observations on the job, boys and girls must be helped to think through for themselves the points of view we hope they will acquire. This latter is especially important, for not all job situations of themselves promote acceptable standards of group and individual conduct.

f. Understanding the Attitudes and Problems of Others. This may be merely an extension of the point made above, but it is worthy of independent comment. No textbook reading or classroom discussion can make wholly clear to the pupil the variety of people and their problems of which a community is constituted. We all tend to be provincial in our outlook because of the limited area of our operations. This is especially true of most boys and girls, bounded as they are by their homes, their social strata, their own churches, their own friends. Job experience cannot break down this provincialism entirely; in fact, it remains a characteristic of most adults. But, combined with thoughtful direction from within the school, a variety of job-experience contacts can make some impression upon the typically parochial outlook on life. The brutal force of racial discrimination becomes real when it is seen first-hand in the factory. The economic strangulation of many of our fellow citizens takes on new meaning when one works and talks with its victims. What the other fellow thinks about his life and times

is sensed more readily in shop talk than by digesting any number of national polls. Visiting factories, surveying slums, interviewing employers, observing civic machinery in operation, valuable as they may be, cannot compare as a social influence upon our boys and girls with rubbing elbows at work with the variety of people and ideas of which America is composed.

g. Developing a Set of Economic Values. In addition to aiding young people in orienting their personal and social outlook, work experience can help them to develop a system of economic values. To use the language of our elders, work experience can help to give them some notion of what a dollar is worth. Work experience contributes in two ways to this end. In the first place, boys and girls can see what value others set on the services they render and the products they make. In the second place, they will be earning and spending money which in most instances will have more significance than any allowance, no matter how liberal or meager. The fact that the money is return for this personal effort inclines most young workers to be more thoughtful of its disbursement than is the case with resources derived from generous parents. But here again the work experience by itself is not adequate to the task. The school must capitalize on the situation through group and personal guidance, by helping the boy or girl with the pay envelope to think out what he may best do with his resources and why.

It seems very certain that in the years immediately following the cessation of hostilities the need for revising economic values will be a most pressing one. This revision will not come easily for adults, and it is likely to be even more difficult for boys and girls who have heard about and perhaps profited from the unusually high monetary value currently set upon labor. It is not within the province of this argument to consider the merits of this value. But since a downward revision seems probable we must be prepared to help young people to make the necessary adjustment with a minimum of distortion. At the same time, young people need to be sensitized to the symptoms which indicate a truly dangerous depreciation of the worth of human effort. Work experience offers the school an excellent tool for helping youth to sort out and arrange its economic values.

h. Re-enforcing Other Learning Experiences. Real job experience presents the young worker with constant opportunities to make use of skills and dispositions for which the ground work has been laid in other courses and experiences making up his school program. Because of the true-to-life character of the job, practice on general skills and

abilities seems less burdensome and makes better sense to boys and girls than almost any practice plans which may be worked out within the school itself. Jobs will, of course, differ in the extent of the possibilities they offer for re-enforcement in various learning areas. Selling notions in a department store calls for the application of some basic abilities which are not so evidently necessary on the part of a stockroom boy in the same store. The apprentice typist will have occasion to use some communication skills which a boy serving as a plumber's handyman has little use for on the job. But for all of these obvious differences, work experiences have as a common quality extensive possibilities for the practice and consolidation of fundamental abilities and dispositions which our schools perennially strive to develop.

By the same token, problems and questions arising on the job can be profitably used in the classroom as the motivational basis for the treatment of issues which otherwise are likely to have but academic interest to pupils. A discussion of labor relations begins to make sense to the boy who spends his Saturdays in a unionized shop. The girl who finds mathematics a totally miserable business is likely to discover some practical need for at least the elements of the subject through a holiday job in the local gift shop. The young office worker may revise her ideas about the importance of acceptable language use more quickly in consequence of a few well-chosen words expressed by her employer than from any amount of careful explanation by a teacher of the language arts.

It would be unwise to leave this consideration of the educational potentialities of work experience without recognizing and recording certain of the limitations and hazards which we must be prepared to deal with in our efforts to expand the coverage of these experiences. For one thing, working conditions are seldom ideal as regards developing certain of the attitudes and dispositions mentioned above. Boys and girls know there are those who loaf on the job, who get a day's pay for less than a day's work, who absent themselves without reason. They see and know that employers tolerate lower standards of performance than is customary. Young people, if they are working, may very well be subjected to direct and indirect pressures by their fellow workers to "take things easy." Under such conditions and when employers are competing for workers, making work experience a genuinely constructive social influence may seem all but impossible. Actually, the current situation is not sufficiently bad to justify the school's actively disapproving work experience, as has been occasionally proposed.

It must also be granted that even under more normal working conditions, work experience plans have seldom been ideal as regards the educational outcomes they have produced. Reasons for this are numerous—a one-sided interest on the part of the school, poor supervision, inadequate pupil guidance, limited co-operation from the community, and so on. It cannot be said too often that just any job for any youngster under any conditions will not produce the values which can be legitimately expected to accrue from work experience. Schools undertaking the development of work-experience plans must anticipate difficult moments and discouraging situations.

We must also be on our guard against at least occasional dissatisfactions on the part of the individual worker. Seemingly unrewarding work, long and fatiguing hours, restrictions of social activities because of lack of time, and less time than may seem necessary for regular school duties may all counteract in some measure, in the mind of the worker at least, the merits of work experience. In large part, of course, these dissatisfactions can be kept to a minimum by alert supervision and guidance on the part of the school, and through a well-organized plan of co-operation with home and industry.

III. THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF SERVICE EXPERIENCES

Service experiences can contribute in substantial measure to many of the same ends as those proposed for work experiences, with the exception of those depending specifically upon the financial rewards of the paid job. But beyond these there are still other values which service experiences can promote in a notably effective manner.

Service experiences present the means we have been searching for to give body and substance to our instruction in citizenship. They are a means of helping boys and girls to develop the habits and dispositions and knowledge we believe they ought to have regarding their personal responsibilities to their fellow men by actually doing something about the matter. Community service can help our civic instruction to escape from its present purely vicarious character. To be sure, community service cannot cover all the generalizations and points of view toward which our social-studies program points. But within that area of the field which has to do with direct action on the part of the individual, community service experience can hardly be surpassed as an educational medium.

There is one phase of the relation of service by young people to community welfare which deserves expansion. All groups depend for their continuance not only upon a measure of commonness of interest

on the part of their members but also upon the willingness of the members to contribute freely of their time and effort to the welfare of the group. Such service is necessary that the group may function effectively; it is also necessary to preserve the like-mindedness which is the soul of the group. Even casual observation shows what happens to an organization when, for any reason, a substantial number of its members refuse to work for and serve the group. The church becomes formal and dead; school morale wanes; the club breaks up; civic responsibility declines. Admittedly, any large and complex group or community has work to be done of so extensive or technical a nature that it is necessary to employ men and women to perform certain tasks; service of group members is no longer entirely adequate to the demands of group life. The city needs full-time fire and police protection; the women's club needs a paid executive; the state needs an army of specialists in administration, and so on. But what has happened in this country is that we have carried the idea of substituting the employee for the server to the point where community and group welfare is seriously threatened. We have failed to recognize that money willingly given to a good cause to hire a job done seldom does as much for either the giver or the recipient as would personal and direct participation by the giver. This is not to belittle financial contributions as a form of community service. The danger is that we, both young and old, will come to think of it as practically the only form.

Perhaps it would be unfair to say that interest in direct participation in community service has declined with and in consequence of the rise in the American standard of living. It may be nearer the truth to say that the desire to be of service has been frustrated to the point where the ordinary citizen finally gives up his efforts to realize his desire. Opportunities for service seem to be reduced in number through the substitution of professional for amateur workers. The employed specialist may be short-tempered with volunteer help. In our large cities the task of finding an outlet for one's service motives is not an easy one though the need for such aid is usually great. Organizations which could well make use of volunteers often have no recruiting and training program for service workers.

But no matter where the blame is to be assigned, the fact is that, until the war made community service a laudable activity as well as a practical necessity, concern with community welfare seemed to be limited largely to the tax rate, clean streets, politics in the police department, and other matters all having to do mainly with one's own

physical comforts. That the fundamental willingness of our citizens, young and old, to be of service is by no means dead, however, is demonstrated brilliantly by the way in which Americans have rallied to war-time demands. Signs that this revived interest in service is likely to carry over into the normal channels of community life when the war is over are most hopeful. But one result of the prolonged indifference to service responsibilities on the part of adults has been the growth of a similarly indifferent attitude on the part of young people. Preferring, as we have seemed to do, to buy rather than serve, to contribute to community needs only if we are paid for our efforts or if it suits our personal pleasure, we can scarcely wonder if our sons and daughters copy our manner.

Through social-studies courses, extra-curriculum affairs, and other in-school activities we have endeavored to help young people to understand the necessary relationship of civic interest and participation to the vitality of community life. No doubt these efforts to prepare boys and girls for this area of living have produced some good results. But the time has come to attack the problem more intensively and more directly. Young people will best acquire interest in service through immediate participation in community service. In others words, if the school is genuinely interested in promoting the welfare of its supporting society it must see to it that our boys and girls are able and willing freely to serve their communities; and to do whatever can be done to make this a standard pattern of American civic life for every citizen, young and old. No better means to this end can be employed than actual service experience by our pupils under the co-operative supervision of teachers and experienced workers in the social and community service field.

One other point pertains to this argument. Young people and adults many times refrain from joining in community enterprises because they feel that they lack the ability to do anything of consequence, that they do not possess what can be called service skills and in consequence are unwilling to expose their incapacities to their fellow citizens. Supervised service experiences are a means for giving our young people service skills which will eliminate one deterrent to civic participation.

IV. DESIRABLE CHARACTERISTICS OF WORK AND SERVICE EXPERIENCES

Although some form of work and service has been found in many of our schools for many years, a serious effort on a large scale to use work and service as educative devices is an essentially new feature of the American educational scene. They break significantly with the

traditional "content" of education. Their full potentialities are unlikely to be realized if they are made to conform to a conventional organization unsympathetic to them. No one questions, however, the importance of subjecting these new activities to certain of our accepted educational controls—they must be selected with an eye to the purposes sought, to the needs of the boys and girls who are immediately involved, and to the nature of the community in which they are to be carried on. But in addition, selected work and service experiences must meet a number of particularized requirements. For present purposes the character of these requirements can be outlined by reference to work experiences alone. Analogies in the field of service will readily suggest themselves to the reader.

In the first place, *the job must be a real job in the obvious sense of the phrase*. The work which is done should be done to meet some true economic or social demand. This requirement does not rule out employment in "luxury" trades or in other situations in which a principal problem is to create public demand for a service or a product. What is desired is employment which to all concerned is readily acknowledged to be real work. Only on such a basis are the occupational and general values of work experience likely to be realized. The worker must respect his job and respect his performance on it. This respect is difficult to obtain if the young worker and his adult supervisors view the job essentially as a time-killer or as boondoggling. In this connection, it will be recognized that much so-called "made work" in past years has not been accepted by either youth or adults as real work. It should be noted, however, that because a job is set up to provide employment or because it is sponsored by an agency not customarily a source of employment does not mean that the job is not a real one. The sponsoring agency and the source of the funds are not fundamentally factors in determining whether or not the job deserves respect. The evident values of the work and the nature of the demands made upon and the controls exercised over the worker are of far greater significance. These considerations are important because it is highly probable that the school will increasingly become a point of origin for work-experience employment. Moreover, the school is not usually thought of as a source of jobs for young people; and the reputation of our schools as work-experience centers during the years of the N. Y. A. was not a good one for the most part.

If a job is to be respected, *the worker must be required to maintain profitable production levels*. Although demands made on the young worker must be in keeping with his skill, his physical and mental

stamina, and his general maturity, he must be allowed—or forced—to feel that he actually is earning his way or is rapidly getting ready to do so. A common and necessary restriction on in-school vocational-training programs is that they do not provide for production experience, and in consequence many young people enter regular employment with quite unrealistic ideas as to what reasonable employers demand of their employees. Work experience can compensate for this limitation.

It follows from this that *the young worker must have open to him the normal rewards for faithful and constructive service on the job—a better job, higher wages, greater responsibility. He must also be subject to the customary penalties for inefficient, careless, irregular performance of his duties.* Young people as well as adults must be protected against capricious acts by selfish employers; but this protection should not go to the extent of maintaining a boy or girl on a job for which he is patently unfit or which he treats in an offhand and careless manner. Private employers left to themselves are unlikely to tolerate such behavior; but we must beware of any disposition, as the educational interest in work experience becomes greater, to temper the treatment of the worker to the point where both productive and educative values are lost.

To be of greatest educative value *the job must provide a physical or mental challenge to the boy or girl.* That is to say, the job should permit and demand improvement on the part of the worker. Practically speaking, a large number of jobs have limits beyond which better performance depends upon new equipment rather than upon greater skill on the part of the operator. What ought to be avoided, if possible, in arranging work experiences for young people are those jobs where these limits can be too quickly and easily reached. Of course, many adults have jobs which in greater or less measure are routine in character and young people ought not to be misled as to the inevitability of a certain amount of such labor. The point here is that since the school is interested in work experience from a guidance and exploratory point of view, both vocationally and otherwise, employment which requires the young worker to stretch himself will be most useful.

It hardly needs saying that *work experiences ought to be arranged for boys and girls in surroundings which are clean and decent, morally and physically.* It would be practically impossible and certainly undesirable to permit boys and girls to be employed only in jobs given an antiseptic treatment daily, so to speak. Real jobs demand the ability to work with all kinds of people under conditions which are not always ideal. However, it would be unwise to carry our desire for realism in

work experience to the point where a youngster's standards, or those we hope to have him develop, are undermined by his contacts on the job.

Finally, since we want to use experience on the job as a basis for discussions of social, economic, and personal problems, *those jobs should be preferred for young people which provide the widest variety of stimulating ideational contacts*. Of course, every job offers some possibilities of this sort. Moreover, this is a matter over which the school may have but limited control. But this factor should be kept in mind whenever there is an opportunity to help young people make job selections.

V. PROBLEMS IN ORGANIZING WORK AND SERVICE EXPERIENCES

Though it may be readily agreed that work and service experiences should be brought into the curriculum of our schools, there are a number of practical problems which must be dealt with before these new additions can be truly effective members of our educational family. It is not the function of this volume to treat of administrative practice in new curriculum areas. Furthermore, many of the problems which operating a work and service program will pose may have to be solved in process, since these new areas are so different from the sort of educational activities with which we are most familiar that we can do little more than make certain hypotheses as to their management to be tested by actual practice. Nevertheless, teachers and administrators who are looking forward to the introduction of these new experience areas into the curriculum must anticipate certain of the major problems which are likely to arise and have in mind tentative plans for solving them.

Among the questions which any consideration of the extension of work and service experiences immediately suggests are such as the following. It will be readily perceived that these questions are those which arise whenever any proposal is made for enlarging the activities and responsibilities of the school. The questions are old and familiar; the answers rather less so.

1. For whom should work and service experiences be provided? In particular,
 - a) For what maturity level are they best suited?
 - b) Should they be "required" or "elective"?
2. How extensive should these experiences be as regards the time assigned to them?
3. Should these learning experiences carry school credit?

4. How can time be found in the school's program for this addition to the program?
5. How can these new activities be most effectively integrated with the rest of the pupil's learning activities?
6. By what means can the school's and the community's interest in work and service be co-ordinated?
7. What provisions will the school need to make for the administration of the program?

1. Groups To Be Included in Program

The protagonist of any new educational movement is likely to view the object of his enthusiasm as of sufficient merit to be good for everyone without exception. Even when this tendency is allowed for, the importance of work and service in the lives of young and old people justifies the conclusion that experience in these areas should be part of the educational pattern of every pupil, regardless of his educational and occupational intentions. Although as has been said, work experience may help certain young people to perfect specific occupational skills, the place of work experience in the curriculum rests on a broader and more general base. Therefore, even though a boy may be planning to continue his education through the university, work experience ought to be one element in his secondary-school program. The same line of argument holds true in the case of service experience.

At what school or age level work and service experiences are likely to be most profitable is open to experiment, but reasonable hypotheses can be advanced. Simple types of work experiences ought to be part of the life of every child—chores about the house, errands for neighbors, and the like. But the more intensive type of work with which we are presently concerned is best reserved largely for senior high school years and later. At this level boys and girls are reaching a point in their development where they are physically and mentally mature enough to handle a real job and live up to standards of performance approximating those of adult workers, at least for limited periods of time; and it is during the year or two at the end of their secondary schooling when young people really become aware of the need to fit themselves for employment and, hence, when work experience can be most effectively used by the school as an educative medium. This is not to say that the school should be inclined to discourage the holding of jobs by younger boys and girls. But for the present, at least, it would seem important to concentrate our efforts on locating and organizing work opportunities for young people in their middle adolescent years. It is, therefore, proposed that as a minimum, work experience be a central element in the twelfth-grade program of *all* boys and girls.

If service experiences are to be made an influential and genuinely constructive element in the education of our boys and girls, every pupil should have experiences of this type every year of his school career. They need not be reserved for older boys and girls; neither ought they to be chosen or rejected as the individual may desire. It is true that service loses something when it is forced, but there is every reason to believe that service activities can be as readily motivated as any other curriculum element.

2. Time Required for Adequate Training

How much work experience, in terms of hours per week and weeks per year, should we seek to provide each pupil? The answer to this question will clearly need to be adjusted to the specific intent of the particular young worker involved. For example, a boy taking a program of vocational education perhaps ought to spend half or more of his time in his senior year serving as an apprentice on some job; whereas, the college-bound lad, since he is not immediately concerned with the acquisition of marketable occupational skills, will gain sufficient benefit from much less time spent on the job. Then, too, since not only the pupil and the school are involved in the undertaking but the employer as well, the amount of time to be devoted to the job may be conditioned in some measure by the nature of the job itself. Though we may be inclined to think of work experience in terms of course equivalents and class hours, it cannot be readily reduced to such bases. We shall probably do our pupils a disservice if we strive to equate in too exact a fashion time spent on a job and hours devoted to classroom studies. Yet for practical purposes we are likely to need some rule-of-thumb equivalent. A number of schools evaluate eight hours, more or less, of work a week through the year as the equivalent of one "prepared" course.

Determining the amount of time which ought to be assigned to service activities is a more difficult task, especially since many such activities are of a group character in which the contributions of the individual may be hard to assess. Moreover, there cannot be a single answer to the question if it is agreed that every pupil from his earliest school years should have contact with community service. Specifically, a few schools are requiring each pupil in his senior year to undertake at least one major service project, designed co-operatively by the pupil and school to fit the pupil's time and abilities. Such individualization of service experiences seems the wiser method of determining each student's assignment.

3. Credit for Work and Service Experience

Seemingly one is confronted with the question as to whether work and service experience for most boys and girls should be credited in the usual school bookkeeping sense. The question is especially acute in the case of work experience. If time is to be found for work experience by eliminating other parts of a pupil's school work which are now credited, we are likely to be forced to recognize work experience by giving it a unit or point value or by making bookkeeping adjustments which amount to the same thing. Where work experience takes a relatively small amount of a pupil's time and can sensibly be added to his other activities, there seems to be slight reason for bringing it into our credit system. Educators rather generally deplore the deleterious influence of course credits on education. It would, therefore, be a pity to apply this withering touch to a type of activity for which most boys and girls do not ordinarily expect compensation other than the weekly pay envelope.

4. Scheduling the Pupils' Programs

If the work experience program of a school is to be based upon jobs out in the community, some violence will have to be done to our traditional notion of what a school day should be like. Not all of the jobs in a town which can be used in the program are available from three to six o'clock daily and all day Saturday, the usual time free from school duties. Boys and girls must be allowed to go to work when the work is to be done, though some regulation of out-of-school hours may be necessary in order not to reduce the in-school schedule to chaos. The experiences of schools which have already started to attack the problem indicate that it is not an insoluble one providing the school is willing to be open-minded in arranging its other operations.

5. Integration with Other Learning Activities

Not only must we anticipate modifications in the mechanics of program arrangement when work and service experience is made an integral part of our educational ventures, we must also expect modifications in the nature of many of our courses, especially those closely related to the issues and techniques encountered on the job. For example, boys and girls who are working want to talk about economic and social problems in terms of what they have run into on the job and will be little moved by discussions of social issues which remain on a general level and never reach down to real folks and familiar surroundings. Naturally the alert teacher will desire to make use of

these job-inspired interests; she will probably want to make more of them, in fact, than the boys and girls may be naturally disposed to do of their own volition. The point is that while work and service experience can be a useful element in the curriculum, even if its influence does not reach over into the more familiar parts of the curriculum, there will be a natural and continuous pressure from the work experiences on these other parts. This pressure should be welcomed and capitalized, not resisted.

If work and service experiences are to promote the broad values maintained for them, these experiences must be the concern of every teacher in the school. True, certain members of the staff will have especial responsibility for their administration and supervision. But unless boys and girls are helped to solve the problems they meet at work and in service through their activities in other instructional areas, the potentialities of these new experiences will be but partially realized. Work and service in their natural state do not suffer the restricting influence of customary school subject lines. In organizing these experiences into a manageable educational framework we must avoid at all costs making them merely another independent subject or department in the school's offering.

We must seek for work and service experiences a completeness and integrity that is notably lacking in many of our traditional school lessons and assignments. At the same time we must strive to integrate these newer experiences with all of the other learning activities in which pupils are engaging. This individuality within a larger web of educational activities is admittedly easier to recommend than it is to describe or to provide in fact. This two-fold orientation is, of course, one which we seek for all our learning activities. By virtue of the lack of traditional ties to confine work and service experiences, it may be easier to achieve this orientation in relation to work and service than in connection with the customary parts of our educational program.

6. Co-ordinating School and Community Services

It seems desirable that in so far as possible the jobs around which the work-experience program is built should be with private employers or in some regular public enterprise. The greater breadth of occupational opportunities, the more true-to-life quality of the work, and, in general, the greater ease of operating the program—all support this reliance upon private industry to provide most work experience openings. Of course, it presumably will be necessary on occasion to fall back upon jobs especially supported by public funds. In some in-

stances, it may be desirable deliberately to create certain types of employment by recourse to public support because of the limited character of local work opportunities. Relying on private employers to provide the bulk of the job opportunities does not rule out student service around the school, providing its limited contribution to work experience is recognized; nor does it preclude employment in the normal public services maintained by the community.

Any work-experience program sponsored by the school which is more comprehensive in its coverage than the miscellaneous jobs which boys and girls ordinarily obtain for themselves will of necessity call for close co-operation and planning with the community at large and with employers in particular. Although most employers are likely to see readily the value to young people and to themselves in a carefully organized work program, there will be some who will need to have the idea expounded to them. Employers in normal times may need some persuading before being willing to depart from their customary ways in order to meet the educational objectives which the school has in mind. But the reception received by schools and communities which have asked for the co-operation of local employers in setting up and maintaining a work-experience plan has been almost without exception a cordial and helpful one. More than that, both school people and employers will find in work experience as envisioned in this discussion a practice which cannot be satisfactorily managed by reliance solely upon well-established procedures in either education or industry. New ways of viewing young people and of working with them must be developed. These will obviously be produced most satisfactorily only if both school and employers work together on the problem. Furthermore, the continuing program must be under the constant and watchful eye of some group specifically assigned this responsibility. This group ought to be composed of school people, employers, representatives of labor, and members of the community at large.

Many American towns and cities already have advisory committees on work experience which serve the co-ordinating and supervisory functions noted above. In many other communities youth planning boards exist—some newly created, others dating back to prewar years—which can serve as a point of origin for a sub-committee or its equivalent to be responsible for work- and service-experience activities. In the nature of things it is to be expected that the first proposals regarding the foundation of a council to co-ordinate the interests of school and industry in work experience should come from the school. It may also be expected that the school people on the council will take a leading

part in developing council policies in the early stages, since in all likelihood they will have given more thought to the educative possibilities of work experiences than prospective employers will have. And as the program matures, members of the school staff probably should be responsible for its over-all supervision and administration. But at all stages in the plan the relationship between the school and the employing group must be a genuinely co-operative one. A superior or patronizing air on the part of the school, unfortunately not uncommon in our relationships with lay groups, would not only be discourteous but antithetical to the motives underlying the entire venture.

What the nature of the co-ordinating council should be and exactly how it should be called into existence is a matter best decided in the light of local conditions. In some instances it may gradually develop from the school's relations with individual employers. In larger communities it may very well be established through the ministrations of the chamber of commerce or some other representative employers' organization. Because work experience does after all have to do with labor, the council ought to have representatives of labor organizations among its members. Experience has shown that a work program can be carried on satisfactorily without an advisory group as here envisioned; but it is evident that such an organization will be desirable and necessary for the operation of an extensive and continuous program of work experience.

The promise of the present moment for taking the first steps to promote co-operation between employers and the school cannot be argued too strongly. If and when job opportunities for young people become scarce again, the task of convincing employers of the merits of work experience and of the desirability of assisting the school in the development of a work-experience program will undoubtedly be relatively difficult. The essentials of the pattern can now be established with relative ease, making the expansion of the idea so much the simpler in the years ahead.

Expanding the service-experience area in the curriculum calls for as close co-operation with community agencies as is necessary in the case of work experience. Much community service is possible within the school itself; but especially with older pupils the program will be truly effective only when it carries them out into the larger community. Thus, to reach out beyond the school walls necessitates close and continuing co-operation with nonschool organizations and individuals.

Since the need for service has always been greater than the supply and is likely to remain so, the problem of finding outlets for service

interests is not great. More than that, community service offers such a range of activities both as to level of responsibilities and dimensions of tasks that no one need lack for a service opportunity that is suited to his age and talents.

Nevertheless, service activities sponsored by our schools have been typically designed mainly to produce materials on behalf of some worthy cause—certainly in itself not an unworthy motive—but with little regard to the possible educational value of the service to the boys and girls. Then, too, the range of school service activities has ordinarily been limited, though the war has opened up the area somewhat: food baskets at Thanksgiving, repaired toys at Christmas, books for a mountain school, contributions to the community fund, and help with an occasional local charity. Participation has in so many instances been without understanding, without enthusiasm, formal, impersonal, done because it always has been done. This description admittedly is unfair to many schools and to numerous boys and girls; yet it cannot be denied that student service as an educative medium and as a source of community strength remains largely an unexplored area.

Service experiences for pupils should be individual, personal ones. That is to say, the boy or girl should be allowed to feel the satisfaction which results from sensing directly the effects of his activities on the happiness and welfare of others. This by no means eliminates group efforts nor does it rule out contributions to causes which are remote in time or space. But certainly the service ideal and service skills will receive the greatest stimulation if the child can see and feel the effect of his own efforts: some particular baby the happier, some octogenarian more cheerful, a specific hospital patient more comfortable, a given alley cleaner, a new playground really built, a neighboring street corner safer for school children.

While much service legitimately has to do with charity, there is abundant opportunity for service which is not of this type. While we do want our boys and girls to be charitable in word and deed, they need to recognize the broader service needs in their environment. They should be as anxious to help maintain the normal life of the community as to assist in eliminating or ameliorating its depressed areas.

Especially for mature secondary-school pupils, service experiences ought to be on an adult level. This makes sense for the evident reason that young people at this stage are actually adult in most respects or are prepared to be if given the chance. But more important, one objective of the service program should be to develop a feeling of responsibility on the part of young people which will cause them to continue

their service activities when they have left their school years behind. One way to promote this end is to see to it that contacts with adult service opportunities are firmly established and the habit of participation is well formed during school years. The hiatus between school life and full participation in adult community life has typically been a lengthy one and a wasteful one in the sense of youthful enthusiasms and skills rusting away. Young people have not been in a position to ferret out ways in which they may serve their communities; and the adult response to offers of help has too frequently been a discouraging one. Induction of young men and women into adult service programs during their school years can do much to bridge this gap.

7. Administering the Program

Schools that have seriously undertaken a work- and service-experience program have discovered the need for additional staff members whose principal duties are the management and supervision of the program. During the days of the National Youth Administration schools quickly discovered the difficulty of operating a work program, then undertaken for only comparatively few children in a relatively restricted working environment, without assigning teachers' time to its supervision. A comprehensive work plan involving many more boys and girls and reaching into all corners of the community will quite evidently need even more attention. It is not just the management of the program, thinking of management narrowly, which will need this attention. If the broad educational objectives of work experience are to be realized, if co-ordination of out-of-school and in-school activities is to be genuine and fruitful, if young workers are to have the guidance and personal help which they will need and which work experience can give, and if dependable techniques of evaluation are to be made and employed, competent professional skill must be assigned to the task. Work and service experience must be looked upon not only as an interesting curriculum innovation but as a truly significant area of living providing a set of invaluable learning experiences for young people. Viewed in this manner, this curriculum area is deserving of at least as much attention and financial support, from both school and community, as are devoted to any of the established and recognized fields in the school's program.

The direction of the work-experience program should be intimately associated with the job-placement activities of the school. Opinion varies as to the school's responsibility for helping boys and girls find jobs, especially at the point where school days are to be left behind

and work becomes the primary occupation. Many school people believe this to be the function of some other community agency than the school. However, an increasing number of school people are coming to feel that initial job placement can be most satisfactorily handled by men and women who know intimately the boys and girls in question; that is, by members of the high-school staff. No doubt, the placement activities of the school should be closely tied in with those of the United States Employment Service, for example. But the suggestion is here offered that the placement and guidance of high-school graduates and "leavers" can be best handled by the school. The work-experience program in earlier years is a natural antecedent to full-time employment, and the two activities of the school should be considered as but parts of one major social and educational responsibility.

Thus far in the discussion it has been tacitly assumed that the work experience in which we are interested will be undertaken during the regular school work and perhaps during regular school hours. But keeping the needs of employers and the characteristics of young people in mind, we must be ready to fit our plans to other patterns. There will be week-end jobs, of course. More important than these, and perhaps more numerous, will be summer jobs. The attractiveness of school-week jobs lies especially in the ease of correlating in-school and job experiences. On the other hand, the summer job has the advantage of full-time job practice. Furthermore, limitations of time and distance need not be so restrictive in the summer as during those times of the year when other school appointments may be kept. In this connection it is particularly important to recognize and be prepared to capitalize upon the possibilities inherent in farm labor as summertime employment for youth. The direct occupational training values of farm work may be of significance to comparatively few urban young people. But with the more general objectives of work experience in mind, it is difficult to think of any other occupational outlet possessing broader educative potentialities.

Summer farm work for boys and girls has been popularized to some degree by wartime agricultural needs. We have also had an opportunity to observe the problems to be solved if farm work by non-farm children is to be worth while to both farmer and worker. Even the limited experience of the past few years is sufficient to demonstrate that careful planning, making of contacts, and close supervision by men and women who understand both farming and children are imperative if the experience is to be a profitable one for the young worker. It is fair to estimate that in the main the most successful plan, espe-

cially with early teen-age children, has been the establishment of work-camp centers. These have been sponsored variously—by individual schools, by the American Friends Service Committee, the Associated Junior Work Camps, social agencies, and the like. It must be admitted that for the time being at least there seems small likelihood of being able to provide work-camp life for more than a small fraction of our American adolescents. But it must be remembered that other portions of our educational system had equally small beginnings. Then, too, widespread public approval of work camps may be easier to obtain in postwar years than we now anticipate in view of the growing support for some form of public service for all boys in their later adolescent years.

The farm work camp offers unusual opportunities for experiences in group living, in related learning by other means than those associated with the regular school, in hard physical and mental labor, in immediately sensing the results of one's efforts. True, there are many types of occupational experiences which rural life cannot readily provide, though few occupations call for such a complex of competencies as does agriculture. To venture a prediction, the next major form to take its place in the American educational pattern may very well be the farm work camp. Here too we may have the key to an educationally and socially sound pattern of year-round education for our boys and girls which avoids the hazards of so-called acceleration yet uses time which might otherwise be idled away to extend the personal and social horizons of our American children.

VI WORK AND SERVICE EXPERIENCES AS AN EVALUATION MEDIUM

In the foregoing discussion emphasis has been given to the direct educational values of work and service experiences and their contributions to other aspects of the school's program. Related to the latter is one use of these experiences which, in conclusion, merits special comment.

No one is wholly satisfied with the devices which are available for evaluating pupils' growth. This is particularly true as regards means for estimating the development of attitudes, dispositions, personal relationships, and other aspects of what may be called nonacademic behavior. At best, the implements we have give partial and unreliable information regarding the manner in which young people will react in nonclassroom situations. We have been turning increasingly to the direct observation of children's behavior for more dependable information as to the effects of their educational experiences. Putting aside

the problem of making such observations both valid and reliable—by no means a negligible problem—there is a further difficulty in the way of the application of observational techniques.

Even when we concentrate our attention upon the child's behavior around the school but outside the classroom, we must reckon with the control which the school environment inevitably exercises over his behavior. Certainly our observation of the pupil on the playground, in the lunchroom, and in committees gives a materially sounder and broader picture of his status than most tests are likely to provide; yet it is limited in its scope. On the other hand, the pupil's life and ways beyond the schoolyard and the school day are almost impenetrable as far as the school is concerned.

In this dilemma, work and service experiences can be of substantial assistance. Because these experiences will be "real" and, for the most part, outside of the school, we can expect more typical behavior on the part of boys and girls than within the school. At the same time, because the school and industry and social service agencies will be working co-operatively in planning and supervising the experiences, there should be abundant opportunities for observing young people in "real" life. To be sure, there will be many aspects of their lives, many patterns of behavior, which young people cannot display while at work or in service; and, for this reason at least, we must not expect to secure a complete and comprehensive coverage of an individual's progress by observing and appraising his reactions in work and service experiences alone. None the less, the opportunities for evaluation through these experiences are numerous and rewarding. The possibilities in this area are alone great enough to justify the attention and respect which work and service experiences are certain to receive in the years ahead.

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CHAPTER VIII

NEW AIMS AND PROCEDURES IN CONSUMER EDUCATION

HENRY HARAP

George Peabody College for Teachers
Nashville, Tennessee
and

JAMES E. MENDENHALL

Educational Branch Services
Office of Price Administration
Washington, D. C.

I. PREWAR TRENDS IN CONSUMER EDUCATION

Consumer education is a part of the program of education for living. It aims to raise the level of individual and family living by a study of the important personal and social problems involved in choosing, buying, and using goods and services. Consumer education is a part of a consumer movement,¹ the primary objective of which is to attain the highest possible level of living for all consumers.

1. Objectives of the Consumer Movement

The consumer movement has naturally concerned itself with the more immediate goals of social welfare. Most frequently, it has endeavored to prevent unwarranted increases in prices. At present the organized consumers are participating in the national effort to halt the rising curve of war prices. For some time the movement's leaders have favored the establishment of a department or bureau of consumers in the executive branch of the Federal Government. In the meantime they have supported stronger action on the part of and increased appropriations for those existing governmental agencies which are concerned with matters of consumer welfare.

Consumers also have a particular interest in the regulatory services of the Food and Drug Administration and the Federal Trade Commission. Interest in the latter grows partly out of the insistent demand for advertising that is free from inaccurate and misleading information. Organized consumers, furthermore, want the National Bureau of Stand-

¹ For a complete account, see: Helen Sorenson, *The Consumer Movement*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1941.

ards to provide more direct services to the buying public. Consumers would like to have ready access to trustworthy information on the quality of things they buy; they want the government to disseminate such facts; and they favor consumer education in the public schools and colleges.

Over a period of years, organizations of consumers have been advocating informative and specific labeling of goods, based upon quality standards or grades. They have defended the consumer co-operative societies against the attacks of certain elements of organized business. Along with particular business groups, they would like to raise the ethical standards in the manufacture and sale of goods and services.

The great mass of consumers and their organizations are concerned with the more immediate advantages of getting the highest quality of goods for the lowest price. A minority of consumers who see the problem more fundamentally adhere to the view that the consumer's interest is inseparable from the economic welfare of the nation. Consequently, they are in search of a program that promises an adequate and secure living to all the people.

Educators who have taken the lead in developing consumer-education programs were fairly well agreed during the prewar period on such objectives as the following:

- 1) Consumer education should help a person to become a *better manager* of his economic resources so that he uses his income, savings, and other possessions in ways which yield him the greatest possible satisfactions.
- 2) Consumer education should help a person to become a *better buyer* of goods and services so that he gets the best goods and services available on the market.
- 3) Consumer education should help a person to become a *better user* of goods and services so that he gains the maximum utility from what he has.
- 4) Consumer education should help a person to become a *better consumer-citizen* so that he acts in ways which advance the welfare of consumers as a whole.

Spelled out, these objectives include the development of the consumer's capacity to budget wisely his personal and family resources; to plan the most effective use of his income to meet present and future needs and wants; to keep himself informed of reliable sources of information regarding "best buys" in terms of price, quality, labor standards, and fair business practices; to use or conserve his present stock of goods to best advantage; and to understand and to participate in group and governmental activities affecting the well-being of all citizens as consumers.

2. Broadening Purposes of Consumer Education

Prior to America's entry into World War II, consumer education was being introduced into more and more of the nation's schools, at successive grade levels, and in various subjects of study. For the first time, many school people were becoming "consumer-conscious." They recognized that every person, no matter what his age, occupation, or interests, was a consumer and that therefore the schools had a responsibility to educate children and youth to solve the practical problems of living in the area of consumption as well as in the area of "bread-winning" or production. Toward education for consumption as an overall objective, numerous teachers and school administrators launched programs designed to help pupils to become better managers of their personal resources, more intelligent buyers and users of consumer goods and services, and more effective consumer-citizens.

Although for several decades consumer education received some attention in the schools, it was largely confined to home economics departments at the high-school and college levels. Consequently, only a relatively small proportion of students (nearly all of whom were girls) received any training whatsoever in this important area of experience. In more recent years, fortunately, consumer education has been envisaged as the obligation of instruction at all levels of the school ladder and in many different subjects of study.

From a survey of consumer education in 1940, Harmon Wilson and Alpheus Marshall concluded:

It is evident from this factual analysis of consumer education that consumer education is already firmly entrenched in our educational system. Consumer education appears to be just one more step in the struggle to make education more functional. It is also evident that consumer education cuts across many subject-matter fields and is not the exclusive monopoly of any particular subject, subject-matter field, or grade level.²

At the elementary level, Gavian³ reported in 1942 that economic education was being offered in a substantial number of general, social studies, arithmetic, and science courses, in Grade I through Grade VI. Covering some 672 courses of study, her survey showed that a significant proportion of the general and social studies courses included consumer-education topics in these fields:

² W. Harmon Wilson and Alpheus Marshall, "Consumer Education: A Look Around," *Consumer Education*, pp. 39-64. Edited by James E. Mendenhall and Henry Harap. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1942.

³ Ruth Wood Gavian, *Education for Economic Competence in Grades I to VI*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.

- 1) Food: production, selection, preparation, and preservation
- 2) Clothing: selection, sewing, and mending
- 3) Housing: planning, constructing, caring for, improving, furnishing, and decorating
- 4) Public services: fire, police, and health protection; recreational facilities; and public schools.

More than one-sixth of the arithmetic courses, Gavian found, included problems involving a study of the cost of various items of living (vacations, lunches, automobile travel, clothing, and gardening) and money management (personal accounts, family budgets, and receipts, personal budgets, sending money by mail and buying by mail).

At the high-school level,⁴ according to available studies, consumer education was offered as a part of regular subjects of study, as a separate course, or as both. Most frequently it appeared in courses within the departments of social studies, home economics, and business education; occasionally, in general mathematics, natural science, and vocational education.

According to Wilson and DeBrum,⁵ the topics most frequently presented as consumer education in various high-school courses were as follows:

- 1) Thrift and record-keeping
- 2) Consumer information, general buying procedures, testing goods, and labeling goods
- 3) Renting and leasing, and home ownership
- 4) Taxes, consumer income, and wealth
- 5) Money and banking, credit, borrowing and lending, investing, small loans, and frauds
- 6) Life insurance and fire insurance
- 7) Selling and marketing, business organization, co-operatives, and advertising
- 8) Health and transportation

⁴For recent high-school courses of study, see:

Baltimore Public Schools, *Proposed Course of Study in Consumer Education for Senior High Schools*. Baltimore, Maryland: Baltimore Public Schools, 1941 (mimeographed). Pp. 46.

Cleveland Board of Education, *Consumer Education. Course of Study for Senior High School*. Cleveland, Ohio: Board of Education, 1942 (mimeographed). Pp. 162.

New Jersey State Department of Public Instruction, *A Guide for Teaching Consumer Education in Secondary Schools*. Trenton, New Jersey: New Jersey State Department of Public Instruction, 1943 (mimeographed). Pp. 134.

⁵W. Harmon Wilson and Joseph DeBrum, *The Status and Future of Consumer Education*. Monograph 51. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1941.

- 9) Consumer legislation and government protection
- 10) Business cycles and price fluctuations
- 11) Consumer goods—food, clothing, etc.

At the college level more than one thousand institutions were offering consumption economics in 1942. About three-fifths of these courses were included in the offerings of home-economics departments and about one-fifth in economics departments. Although these two departments led in the number of such courses offered, consumption economics was also taught as units in courses in business education, education, and general social science.

II. EFFECT OF WAR ON CONSUMER EDUCATION

1. Wartime Consumer Problems

Wartime conditions have not altered the importance of consumer education but they have brought new problems for the consumer and for the educational program. Although more necessary, wise management of personal resources has become more difficult. With more money in their pockets or in the bank, consumers have been torn between the impulse to spend what they have and the impulse to put that money into such investments as war bonds. In the immediate post-war years they will be confronted with the problem of how best to use their savings: as a cushion to tide them over a period of unemployment, as a means to obtain new automobiles or other kinds of durable goods which they did without during the war, or as protection against illness, old age, and the like.

In the field of buying, consumers have also faced serious problems in the war emergency. With plenty of money to spend and limited supplies of consumer goods to purchase, they have many times bought almost anything they could get their hands on. Even those who had reasonably high competence in this field have perforce purchased goods which they knew to be of medium if not low quality. And those without consumer knowledge have had little incentive to improve their buying competence because of the fact that many kinds of merchandise of high quality were not available in retail outlets. Yet, in the post-war era, it is important that every effort be made to raise the buying competence of all consumers so that they can judge the quality of the goods then to be had, thus, also helping to raise the standards of serviceability of commodities offered them by producers.

In the field of using or conserving goods, consumers have been compelled by wartime restrictions and impelled by wartime appeals to find new ways of extending the life of the goods which they had in their possession. Their war experience has taught them many ways in which

to keep the family car on the streets and highways for essential driving, to make household equipment last, and to care for shoes and other articles of apparel. Even when more plentiful supplies of these and other products are available, consumers will find it to their advantage to continue many of the conservation practices which they developed during the war, thus in effect increasing their real incomes.

In the field of consumer-citizenship, consumers have learned much about the relationship between their well-being and the well-being of the nation as a whole. Through an active interest and participation in price control and rationing, for example, they have seen the responsibility of the government and the people to stave off wartime inflation. Through concern with measures of taxation, subsidies, civilian allotments of goods, war bonds, victory gardens, wartime controls of monopolies and patents, and the like, they have discovered more than ever before the role of citizens in the direction of the national economy.

2. Wartime Changes in Consumer Education

During the war period and especially since the attack on Pearl Harbor, consumer education has endured certain losses and at the same time has registered certain gains. On the whole, these gains have exceeded the losses. Furthermore, if school people maintain and even increase their interest in this area of education in the postwar era, they will be able to recoup wartime losses and consolidate wartime gains.

There is evidence that during war years many high schools which formerly offered consumer education as a separate subject of study (usually at the level of Grades XI and XII) have dropped this course from their curriculums. This was done for a number of reasons, of which the following was probably outstanding: In nearly all high schools, the major emphasis has quite rightly been placed upon education for war production and for military service. As a result, formal courses in consumer education, along with courses in other areas of general education, were submerged or "put on the shelf" for the duration.

Where consumer education was still taught, its scope was narrowed to cover those aspects of living which appeared to be of greatest importance to the war effort—that is, to such matters as price control, rationing, war savings, conservation, salvage, nutrition, and victory gardens. At the same time, this wartime consumer education was introduced into hundreds of schools which previously had given little or no attention to consumer problems. Throughout the nation consumer education for wartime living was stimulated by a number of wartime agencies—the Office of Price Administration, the United States Treas-

ury's War Savings Staff, the Bureau of Industrial Conservation of the War Production Board, the War Food Administration of the United States Department of Agriculture, the Office of the Petroleum Administrator for War, the Office of the Rubber Director, the Office of Defense Transportation, and the Office of War Information.

Upon suggestions from these war agencies and even more often upon its own initiative, nearly every school and school system in the country has offered wartime consumer education in one form or another. In a typical school system, for example, pupils in all grades from the kindergarten through the high school have participated in war-bond and stamp drives, in salvage campaigns, in food-producing, food-saving, and general conservation programs, and in rationing and price-control efforts.

These activities contributed directly to the advancement of war programs and to the protection of the wartime welfare of children, youth, and adults in their own communities and in the nation as a whole. They also developed understanding, skills, habits, and attitudes which were of recognized educational worth to the pupils concerned.

Toward these objectives, the chief state school officers and their staffs in many states have prepared bulletins and other materials dealing with the stabilization of the economy and other wartime matters.⁶ These consumer-education materials were made available to local schools and school systems, many of which carried out the suggestions made by state education departments.

Numerous local school systems also developed their own wartime programs in the area of consumer education. They prepared special materials for school use,⁷ held conferences, organized adult-education

⁶ Among examples of wartime publications by state departments of education are the following:

California, *The War on the Home Front. How You as a Consumer Can Help Win the War*; Georgia, *How the Schools Can Help Win the War*; Iowa, *Elementary Schools Take Their Place in the War Effort*; Maine, *How to Live in a Wartime Economy*; Montana, *Our Part in the War Program*; North Carolina, *Ways to Victory on the Home Front*; Vermont, *Study Suggestions for Schools on Our Wartime Economy*; Virginia, *Adapting the School Program To Meet the Needs of the Country under War Conditions*.

⁷ Among examples of wartime publications by city school systems are the following:

Chicago, *Americanism Bulletins*; Cincinnati, *Better Teaching* (Oct., 1943); Cleveland, *You Can Help Your Country Win* (adult education); Denver, *Help Control Inflation*; Lincoln (Neb.), *Patriotic Service on the Home Front* (bulletin series); Los Angeles, *Your Place in the War Program*; New Orleans, *Wartime Bulletin for the Public High Schools*; New York City, *Consumer Problems in Wartime* (bulletin series); Philadelphia, *An Outline of a Course in Consumer Problems*; Washington, D. C., *Our War on the Home Front*.

classes, and undertook other activities leading to the extension of war-time consumer education throughout the school system. Many colleges and universities also revised their courses of study to include wartime consumer education and took further steps to make this information available to adults in the communities and states which they served.

Of great importance to the progress of consumer education in the war emergency has been the volunteer work which school people have done in their communities. Within school walls, for example, they have helped pupils to understand how to use ration books and new price-ceiling lists, and these pupils in turn have often passed this information along to their parents. They have also served as volunteers in the educational, training, and operational work of their War Price and Rationing Boards. Both teachers and older students have served as volunteers in handling routine matters in the offices of these boards, in explaining programs to others in the community, and in checking upon compliance with local price ceilings. Through such wartime economic activities as these the schools have brought the community into the classroom and have taken the classroom into the community.

Through in-school and school-community programs, schools have made consumer education more functional in the daily living of pupils, parents, and others whom these institutions serve. They have raised the economic literacy and the consumer competence of children and adults, and have created a more active and widespread interest in this area of education.

3. Wartime Developments That Should Be Continued Permanently

Whatever the postwar economic picture, there are a number of war-time developments in consumer education which have definite carry-over values. Among these are the following:

a. Growth of Consumer-consciousness. As a result of war conditions and educational programs, many citizens have begun to think of their incomes in terms of purchasing power rather than in terms of dollar value alone—not just “how many dollars can I get” but “How can I use most effectively the dollars I have.” This typifies the change-over in attitude toward the consumer’s point of view.

b. Greater Price-consciousness. Because of increases in the cost of living and because of the price ceilings established in wartime to check these increases, consumers have learned to examine more carefully the prices asked for goods and services. Within the limits set by factors of time, transportation, and convenience, they have increasingly rea-

lized the values of watching prices and of shopping around for so-called "best buys" in the market place.

c. *Increasing Quality-consciousness.* The quality deterioration of certain kinds of consumer goods has caused consumers to pay greater attention to the serviceability of the merchandise which they buy. They have seen that quality depreciation is equivalent to "a hidden price rise." They have more and more come to recognize that consumer goods should meet certain specified standards of quality; that these standards should bear a definite relationship to price; and that where practicable, labels should carry designations of quality, for instance, in the form of standard grades which are easily recognized, understood, and applicable in shopping.

d. *Wider Sharing of Consumer Goods and Services.* Because of rationing, consumers have become more conscious of the fact that in wartime there is a limited supply of scarce and essential goods available to civilians and that these goods must be distributed fairly, equitably, and democratically in order to maintain the health, strength, and morale of the home front. Because of government allocations, furthermore, they have increasingly seen the importance of sharing food and other essential supplies with America's armed forces, with its Allies, and with the peoples of the areas of the world which have been liberated from Axis control.

Through voluntary actions consumers have learned the values of sharing scarce wartime goods. Examples of this sharing have been the organization of car pools and shoe-swap centers, and the informal co-operative use of durable household equipment, such as washing machines. Through such sharing, civilians have learned to get even greater utility from the limited supply of certain kinds of goods.

e. *Increasing Conservation of Consumer Goods and Services.* Because of wartime shortages, consumers have more and more learned to put into practice the slogan, "Use it up. Wear it out. Make it do—or do without." Increasingly they have found it both necessary and desirable to master the techniques of avoiding food waste in the home; of caring for and repairing clothing, kitchen utensils, and household equipment; of making over garments and of reconditioning furniture; of getting the most out of cars, tires, and gasoline; and of raising victory gardens and of canning and otherwise preserving vegetables, fruits, and meats in the home. By acquiring such knowledge, skills, and habits, consumers have equipped themselves to get the maximum usefulness from their present stock of economic goods both now and in the years ahead.

f. *Greater Nutrition-mindedness.* The wartime slogan, "Eat the right foods," has been popularized by governmental and other agencies. As a result of the national nutrition program, consumers have learned to pay increasing attention to food-producing, food-buying, and food-using in their homes.

g. *Increased Thrift in Living.* The anti-inflation programs of the war period have considerably affected the habits and attitudes of consumers with reference to the management of their incomes. For the first time, many families have put savings first on their budgets, regularly setting aside a certain amount of their weekly or monthly pay to buy war bonds. Voluntarily, also, they have limited their spending to the minimum essentials of wartime living. As an outcome of the "pay-as-you-go" income tax plan, families have found it easier to keep their budgets in balance.

h. *Greater Interest in Consumer-legislation.* During the war period consumers have learned to pay closer attention to the actions of the Federal Government with reference to price regulation, rationing, taxation, subsidies, wage control, and other matters which affected both their own interests and the interests of the nation as a whole.

During the war years the public has been exposed to the strongest campaign in the annals of consumer education. The press, radio, motion picture, and hundreds of agencies of business and government have daily given the consumer thousands of suggestions for buying and using meat, coffee, tires, electrical appliances, furniture, clothing, plumbing, and numerous other articles in daily use. What residue of information the consumer will have after the war is indeterminable. It is fair to assume that he will have developed a little more curiosity about the cost, quality, and convenience of the goods and services that he buys.

III. POSTWAR DEVELOPMENTS AND PROBLEMS

The major danger which consumers fear is that the postwar era, like that following World War I, will be marked by a severe economic depression. In the last war the collapse of 1920-21 brought hardships to the whole population. Thousands of businesses failed. Millions lost their jobs. Farm prices crashed and thousands of farm-mortgages were foreclosed. Nearly everyone was worse off. All this was a direct result of uncontrolled wartime inflation. In this war, however, economic controls have held prices within bounds so that there is less danger of a postwar deflation.

1. Preventing Inflation after the War

Toward preventing inflation and subsequent depression after the war, consumers are increasingly recognizing that first and foremost America must have full production and full employment. What the former can be has been demonstrated during the war period. In 1943 our nation's gross national production was about 185 billion dollars, double that of 1939 in dollar volume and 65 per cent greater in physical volume.

Of the 185 billion-dollar production in 1943, about half went to military purposes, the rest to civilian uses. If this war production were suddenly terminated and not replaced by a substantial increase in production of civilian goods, the nation would suffer what would probably be the worst economic depression of its history.

That is why, after the war, government, business, labor, farmers, and consumers must co-operate to develop ways and means of converting rapidly the economy from wartime to peacetime production, of stepping up civilian production to the highest possible levels, and of providing enough jobs at reasonably adequate incomes to workers, farmers, businessmen, and other gainfully employed persons. Only with full production and full employment, assured if necessary by useful government projects and public services, can our historic free enterprise system enable the overwhelming majority of American consumers to enjoy a high and rising standard of living.

What consumers may expect during the transition from a wartime to a peacetime economy was well outlined in an address before the Marketing Conference (January, 1944) of the American Management Association by Richard V. Gilbert, Economic Advisor to the Office of Price Administration. He said:

We all recall that after the last war price controls were dropped almost immediately upon the signing of the Armistice. The result was a rapid upward sweep of prices and wages. Fully 40 per cent of the total inflation of the period took place after the cessation of hostilities.

Still another consumer matter which continues to be a serious problem is that of protecting the welfare of individuals and families whose incomes have remained relatively fixed or have been considerably reduced during the war period. These persons, estimated to number at least one-sixth of America's total population, include dependents of the men in the armed services, teachers and many other white collar workers, old-age annuitants and pensioners, and dependent widows and children. Unless prices are held down and the incomes of these persons

are adjusted to keep pace with living costs, their economic position is bound to become intolerable.

The plight of those with relatively fixed incomes is illustrated by the situation faced by American teachers. During the war their average salary has risen from \$1441 in 1939-40 to \$1550 in 1942-43, an increase of 7.5 per cent. In the same period average retail prices rose 21 per cent. This was equivalent to "a hidden salary cut" of about 11 per cent. However, because there has been a slight increase in the average salary in 1943-44 and because the cost of living has been stable in that school year, the purchasing power of teachers' salaries has improved somewhat.

2. Release of Pent-up Savings

Because of the steep rise in income payments to individuals and in their disposable incomes after the payments of direct taxes, civilians have amassed large and growing savings during the war period. These savings are in the form of investments in war bonds, in bank accounts, and in currency, all relatively liquid assets. Had there been no official or voluntary controls over spending, these mounting savings would undoubtedly have caused a skyrocketing of prices.

In the year 1943 alone, the total savings of civilians reached the huge figure of thirty-five billion dollars, more than one-third of the amount they spent on goods and services in that year. At the end of that year, furthermore, the total of individual savings was some sixty billion dollars larger than at the end of 1940. At the close of 1944, this total is expected to reach one hundred billion dollars.

While these vast savings are not equally distributed among the American people, their distribution rather following somewhat the pattern of distribution of incomes, they do represent a not inconsiderable store of potential purchasing power in the hands of millions of families. With the relaxation of wartime economic controls and with slow re-conversion of production, this purchasing power can flood the market and can force prices sky high.

On the other hand, these aggregate savings can constitute a reserve which civilians may draw upon to obtain many of the goods and services they previously could not obtain because of war restrictions. As such, these savings can serve as a powerful stimulus to production and employment, and thus make for both a sound and an expanding economy.

For the individual family, savings in the form of war bonds and other liquid assets can constitute a reservoir of purchasing power during

the postwar era. They can also serve as "a cushion" to tide a family over hard times if the nation suffers a postwar depression marked by unemployment and reduced income.

3. Relaxation of Controls on Consumer Credit

Because of wartime restrictions which the Federal Government has placed on consumer credit, the typical family may revolutionize its methods of paying for more expensive types of consumer durable goods and for home ownership. In buying a new automobile, it may save up enough in advance to pay cash in full for a car instead of buying the car on credit and paying for it later on the installment plan. Certainly it will be able to use its savings, say in war bonds, to make substantial rather than a small down payment when making such a purchase. The resultant savings in funds otherwise required to meet credit charges can obviously be considerable.

With the relaxation of controls over consumer credit in the postwar period, it will of course again be possible for a family to borrow funds to purchase consumer durables on the installment basis. As in the past, the public will need consumer credit if it is to buy goods when wanted and to pay for them later. And if there is an adequate supply of consumer durable goods on the market, this consumer credit can serve as a stimulus to national purchasing power as it did in the pre-war era.

4. New Consumer Goods and Services

The consumer's adjustment to the problem of buying the new products of industry will not be an exactly fresh experience. He has not yet caught up with technology's flow of goods of the last few decades. The increased complexity of the output in the postwar years will simply make buying a little more difficult than it has been. These new products of science and invention will not necessarily make for better living but, since they are inevitable, the consumer must prepare himself for an increasingly difficult problem of choice-making.

As a result of the war we shall restore the vitamins and mineral salts formerly left out of flour and bread. Eventually, the millers and bakers of the nation will sell only "enriched" bread. Soy beans in many forms will be widely consumed and will add enormously to the protein intake of the nation. The laboratory of the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics has prepared a meat loaf which substitutes soy grits for about 20 to 25 per cent of the meat. The peanut, another protein food, will supplement the limited consumption of meat which is an expensive food for the low-income families.

Secretary of Agriculture Wickard is among those who predict that the food-buying habits of the people will change in the future as a result of wartime developments in food processing. The use of frozen products may alter the marketing of fruits, vegetables, and meat. The sale of quick-frozen foods is destined to increase rapidly after the war. The consumer should keep informed about the comparative price, nutritive value, and ways of keeping them.

Vitamin production has developed into a flourishing two-hundred-million-dollar industry as a result of wartime popularization of nutritional knowledge. These important nutritive elements are being consumed by the gullible public regardless of the particular needs of the individual and in ways that may have little value in maintaining health and physical vigor. Against the powerful campaign of sales promotion the school will have to wage a counter offensive of enlightenment. The consumer will need to know what deficiencies each vitamin supplies, under what conditions the synthetic vitamins are effective, how the daily requirements may be met at the cheapest cost in the normal diet, and how they may be supplemented by the purchase of capsules or tablets. The consumer will also need to be able to evaluate numerous other food products with chemically added vitamins.

In many centers visited by enlisted men, the local authorities found it expedient to enact an ordinance placing eating establishments in class A, B, or C, according to their cleanliness and sanitary condition. This has resulted in a general improvement of cafes, fountains, and other eating places. After the war these ordinances may become permanent and, if so, the consumer will become more discriminating in his patronage of eating places.

The war has greatly accelerated research on synthetic fibers as a result of which we may expect an array of new textiles derived from coal, air, water, natural gas, cellulose, casein, glass, synthetic rubbers, soy beans, and potato starch. Some synthetic fabrics will be produced in sheets rather than in the fiber. The textile industry has made great progress in the skilful blending of rayon, cotton, aralac, and re-used and reprocessed wool in the production of fabrics. This situation will confuse the consumer unless educators keep informed on the quality of these products and pass on their information to the youthful buyer.

Because of the scarcity of leather during the present emergency, it became generally known that there is a factory method of treating leather with oil or wax to increase its durability from 10 to 40 per cent, depending upon the grade of leather. The shoe manufacturers are reported to have used their influence to prevent the War Production

Board from ordering the use of this process. This method of conserving leather has been used by some manufacturers for some time in the production of shoes for the retail market. Failure to use oil treatment is an illustration of social waste which hurts those families most which are obliged to buy shoes of low-grade quality.

Furniture will be produced in functional designs made of light-weight metals, plastics, and plywood. New synthetic resin finishes have been developed which will make the less expensive furniture woods more durable and more resistant to stains and chipping. For the families that can afford them, we may expect improved dishwashers.

There will be a huge demand for homes after the war. Hitherto, the building industry has failed to apply the processes of mass production to the building of homes. According to America's industrial scientists, we shall at last fill the long neglected need for inexpensive but adequately equipped houses for the great mass of American families. Some of these low-priced houses will be prefabricated, delivered in sections, and erected in a short time.

The owners of conventional houses may expect improvements in rock wool and other materials for home insulation. New materials for the construction of houses include: light-gauge steel for outside walls, plywood or plaster panels for inside walls, and removable prefabricated sections for changes of interior design. New equipment for the home includes air conditioning units, fluorescent lights, prefabricated home heating equipment, and inexpensive liquified petroleum gas for farm homes.

The reports of the United States Census Bureau and other agencies show a remarkable increase in the number of electrified farms. It is reasonable to expect a rapid rise in farm electrification immediately after the war. Even at the prewar rate of increase, all the farms should be served with electricity within ten years after the end of the war. Electric irons, radios, washing machines, water pumps, and other power machinery will be used more commonly in the home, in the barn, in producing crops, and in the preparation and storage of food for the market. No matter what their present situation is, our young people are destined to use more electrical appliances in the future.

5. Postwar Consumer Issues

No issue in price control during the war generated more heated controversy than that of grade labeling of consumer goods. Some of the leading chains of food stores have for some time been marking their canned goods "A," "B," and "C" to indicate the three grades which they sell. The same practice in varying forms is used in the

sale of many other goods. However, during the bitterest revolt against the Office of Price Administration regulations by the foes of grade labeling, Congress passed an amendment to the Emergency Price Control Act of 1942 which resulted in the withdrawal of the requirement that grades be stated on labels. It now appears that the opponents of grade labeling have gone too far in the promotion of their own interests, for the organized consumers are more determined to fight on this issue than ever before. Therefore, after the war we may anticipate an increase in the number of grade-labeled products and an increase in the emphasis upon the study of grades as a means of more intelligent and economical buying.

The battle of butter versus margarine, which is still going against the consumer, illustrates that frequently the consumer's interest is advanced only when a strong business group, out of self-interest, takes up the cudgels for him. Margarine when fortified with vitamin A is as nutritive as butter, but restrictive legislation has effectively blocked its widest possible use. At the present time butter is fifty-one cents a pound while margarine is about twenty-two cents a pound. State and federal regulations penalize the cheaper product. The tax on colored margarine is so high that it practically prohibits the sale of the colored product, although the dealer is permitted to supply the coloring matter separately. Many states require expensive dealers' licenses.

Before the war the per capita consumption of butter was seventeen pounds as compared with three pounds for margarine. In 1943, due to the shipment of butter overseas, its per capita consumption dropped to thirteen pounds while that of margarine rose to 4.8 pounds. Since the producers of cottonseed oil and soybean oil supply over three-quarters of the ingredients of the total output of margarine, we may soon see the growers of these raw materials take up the battle in behalf of the low-income buyer. The consumer has a stake in this controversy and his problem is how to make his influence felt by the agencies of government.

The co-operative medical services, such as the Blue Cross Hospital plan and the group medical services in industry, have been expanded during the war period. The success of these enterprises and the increasingly favorable attitude of the public indicate that medical services will be extended to the great mass of the people. Even the American Medical Association recognizes the impending changes in medical services after the war. A bill has been introduced in Congress which would set up a national system of insurance for medical service and

hospitalization. The postwar provision of adequate health services will be a subject of public discussion which will vitally affect the consumer.

IV. THE EMERGENCE OF A COMPREHENSIVE PROGRAM OF CONSUMER EDUCATION

Thus far we have discussed the problems of consumption which will confront the people after the war. We have also reviewed the progress of consumer education during the prewar and the war periods. There are indications that we may expect the emergence of suggested comprehensive patterns of consumer education for the fourteen-year school program. For purposes of adding to the several proposals made by others, we present the following suggestion for the organization of consumer education as a major area of general education.

1 Organization of the Curriculum of Consumer Education

General education is that part of the whole curriculum that has to do with the basic or common experiences of people. These common experiences include getting a living, making a home, using leisure, participating in group life, governing ourselves, consuming goods and services, etc.

Our problem is, first, to analyze the area of consumption into its component activities and, second, to organize these activities into a suggested comprehensive program covering the whole period of basic education, that is, Grades I to XIV. The activities of consumption have been studied by social analysts, by educational investigators, and by the writers of textbooks and courses of study. The main divisions around which these activities cluster are: buying goods and services, general buying problems, family finance, the consumer and government, and consumer organizations. These categories define the scope of the area of consumption and, for purposes of planning, may be listed horizontally as they might appear on a chart.

Vertically are listed the successive levels of interest as they were determined by an extensive analysis of units in curriculums closely related to the activities of living. They are as follows: Grade I, home and neighborhood life; Grade II, community life; Grade III, basic human needs; Grade IV, early simple industries; Grade V, transportation and communication; Grade VI, the use of modern inventions in home and community; Grades VII and VIII, adjustment to the physical and biological environment; Grades IX and X, adjustment to social and economic institutions; Grades XI and XII, building a democratic society; Grades XIII and XIV, living in a democratic world.

The next step consists of putting each of the fifty or more topics in consumer education into its proper place. We have not carried this analysis to completion, but it is apparent that it will involve a certain amount of repetition and overlapping of topics. The assumption is that learning will be a cumulative process in which the pupil will come in contact with all of the phases of consumer education on appropriate levels of interest, difficulty, and need. Theoretically, it is a simple matter to establish sequence and coherence in consumer education. Actually, the accomplishment of this end is by no means easy or certain. It depends upon the awareness on the part of teachers of the purpose and the design of the total program.

2. Teaching Procedures in Consumer Education

a. Materials and Activities. From a recently completed study of classroom practices in consumer education covering the period of 1938-1942,⁸ indications are that learning in this field is still in the formative stage. Although textbooks have been published in a steady stream, instruction is not completely dominated by a single book. Most teachers who use a text also rely upon supplementary sources of information. The majority use several texts or numerous reference materials. Practical activities are commonly found. Surveys of neighborhood buying practices, studies of comparative prices, the collection and analysis of labels, the critical study of advertisements and numerous other projects are included in the courses in consumer education which were analyzed.

More than a third of the instructors reported that they used the discussion procedure. Field trips were reported by 35 per cent of the instructors. These visits included trips to factories, stores, housing projects, and dairies. Approximately 50 per cent of the courses include visual aids, such as movies, displays, and exhibits. Other learning procedures reported are debates, demonstrations, experiments, interviews, and radio broadcasts.

At the present time, the informational content of courses in consumer education comes from a large variety of books, pamphlets, documents, and the magazine articles. It is unlikely that the future courses will draw to any smaller degree on collateral readings even if textbooks continue to become more numerous. Without accumulated current materials, it is impossible to keep up with the rapid changes in the buying market. The collection of printed matter must become a con-

⁸ For an earlier study of courses in consumption, see Henry Harap, "Seventy-one Courses in Consumption," *School Review*, XLVI (October, 1938), 577-96.

tinuous systematic procedure in which the teacher and the students keep in touch with material as it comes off the press.

Among the most promising teaching procedures in consumer education which have been developed during the war are those which have aided pupils to carry their consumer knowledge into their daily living, into their homes, and into the community. In Milwaukee, Wisconsin, a third-grade teacher in the public schools used point rationing to develop an understanding of the rationing program and of basic arithmetical operations. Through setting up a model store, pupils learned to handle "play" ration books and stamps. They also learned to add up the ration points required to make purchases of rationed goods, and to add and subtract points in making ration change.

Throughout the Denver, Colorado, high schools classroom teachers discussed the reasons for wartime rationing of gasoline, the dangers of black marketing in connection with this essential fuel, and the steps citizens could take to make gas rationing fully effective. High schools also put on assembly programs where student speakers explained the campaign to get all youth and adults to comply loyally with rationing rules.

In San Diego, California, a home-economics teacher helped train her pupils for work as volunteer price-panel assistants of the Local War Price and Rationing Board. In class the pupils studied official meat price lists. They were then given a brief training course by a price official in the District Office of Price Administration who took the group of twenty pupils to a wholesale meat establishment to learn to identify meat cuts. The girls, working in teams of two each, called on a total of ninety stores. There they were pleasantly received by nearly all merchants. After these visits they made reports to the Price Panel, to other pupils in their classes, to a group of home-economics teachers, and to the public over a local radio station. A social studies teacher in Hastings-on-Hudson, New York, together with other teachers in her high school, prepared a special study unit on wartime inflation and its control. The unit was taught in all social studies classes in the high school.

b. *The Learning Environment in Consumer Education.* In order to insure the continuance of the lifelike character of courses in consumption after the war, it will be necessary to secure general acceptance of the idea that such courses should be conducted in a laboratory equipped with apparatus for testing common commodities and with work benches for the preparation of formulas and recipes. This workshop should contain all the paraphernalia for the performance of practical scientific experiments.

There should be an abundance of articles which are merely inspected for quality, for raw materials, and for measurements. Tools should be provided for work involving construction projects, and devices should be improvised from time to time for testing and analysis. There should be a constant flow of common articles of consumption through the laboratory. It would not be desirable to develop formality or standardization of equipment. Every student should be working with materials, but the task of each should be different.

There should be an ample stock of measuring instruments for all kinds of records, observations, and comparisons. Things will accumulate and spacious storage will have to be provided. The stock will have to be carefully organized so that materials may be readily found. Filing cabinets will contain pictures, pamphlets, and other fugitive materials that are necessary in investigations, analyses, and researches. The walls should be lined with shelves containing books, periodicals, and documents. These will accumulate in the course of time, and provision should be made for expansion.

In time there should be a collection of lantern slides to aid in understanding materials and processes. In cardboard boxes, in glass jars, and in other containers, conveniently classified, there should be exhibits showing consumption products at various stages of manufacture.

c. An Illustrative Unit of Work. This discussion of teaching procedure emphasizes the importance of learning as a purposeful process in which students are engaged in solving a problem, meeting a need, overcoming a difficulty, accomplishing a goal. The most effective organization of this type of learning is around large, on-going units of work.

To illustrate, let us assume that a class sets for itself the problem, "How to buy and use cosmetics wisely." A small group undertakes the responsibility for planning this inquiry. A period of reading follows in which the students become more familiar with the situations involved in buying cosmetics. They look for suggestions in books, course outlines, pamphlets, and government documents. This group brings to class an outline of a dozen or more suggested activities together with a bibliography of books available in the class or school library. The class divides itself into committees to pursue this inquiry.

A group selects face creams as its subject of study. They ascertain which are harmful and why. A critical study is made of the advertisements of creams. The ingredients of creams are studied. A committee investigates the federal and state laws regulating advertising, labeling, and selling of drugs and cosmetics. The same is done for local ordi-

nances. Published reports are secured and made available to the class. A study is made of the personnel and the methods of law enforcement used.

A committee assumes responsibility for a study of soap. The points involved in the buying of soap are discussed. Soaps especially designed for hard water are reported, indicating the special ingredient. Hard- and soft-water soaps are experimented with in the classroom. The science department is asked to co-operate in the setting up of a simple experiment to discover whether a given sample of soap contains an excess of alkali.

Another committee reports on the several principal types of reducers. Samples are brought to the class, which discusses the effectiveness, price, and advertising of each. The advertising as compared with the provisions of the Wheeler-Lea Act and the physiology of adding and reducing weight (metabolism) are discussed.

Committees assume responsibility for other activities involved in this problem, such as analysis of the contents of the typical medicine cabinet, a study of a few most common patent medicines, an inquiry into the three principal kinds of pain relievers, a study of the drug and cosmetic section of the recently revised federal Food and Drug Act.

A review of the unit shows that it exemplifies certain significant characteristics of the learning process. The students are given an opportunity to share in planning the scope of the work and the character of each separate enterprise. It involves activities reproducing life situations as far as possible. The whole community is used as a laboratory. Whenever possible, the student brings to class the materials he is talking about or demonstrates the process which he is discussing. Related information from all subjects is introduced as needed. An analysis of the subjects involved in the above activities shows that they include chemistry, mathematics, political science, physics, physiology, and hygiene. Each day some unforeseen problems arise which are followed up.

The unit discussed above ends on the note with which this chapter began—the education of the individual for higher levels of living. The wartime community projects which developed into purposeful, continuing activities have vitalized the work of the classroom. This trend toward education for living will be continued after the war. More schools will give more attention to those activities which contribute to the improvement of peacetime community living.

CHAPTER IX

EDUCATION IN THE USE OF NATURAL RESOURCES

GEORGE F. GANT
Director of Personnel
Tennessee Valley Authority
Knoxville, Tennessee

I. INTRODUCTION

1. Resources to Sustain Life May Be Exhausted

Today, as man is surrounded by a glittering-gadget civilization, it is easy for him to forget that gadgets are materials of the earth and that society is but man's mould of his life within the limits of his natural environment. The society that men build is, in final analysis, their adjustment to nature's organization of sun, air and water, soil and minerals, and plant and animal life. Nature's organization is the basis of man's society; man and nature are inseparably bound in a web of interdependence. For man to survive, he must know nature and live in harmony with it.

If all natural resources upon which mankind depends for food, clothing, shelter, and happiness were inexhaustible and evenly distributed on the surface of the globe, education in the use of natural resources could consist merely in learning the several ways of using resources for man's own ease and comfort during his own lifetime. Waste would cause no problems. But such is not the case. Many resources upon which man's very existence depends are exhaustible or subject to exhaustion. Regardless of the type of civilization he creates, man is building on quicksand unless his relationship to nature is such that it contributes to continuing the reproductive balance among the factors of the natural environment. One of the most significant problems facing any society, therefore, is the relationship existing between it and the natural resource base—the way in which men understand and use resources.

It is too little realized how much of our present industrial civilization is based upon supplies of exhaustible energy elements such as coal and oil. All minerals are being used with increasing rapidity. As Brookings Institution points out in the introduction to *World Minerals*

and World Peace, "Minerals are the raw materials of both the machine and the power that runs it. The burst of industrialization since the opening of the present century has intensified the use of minerals, both in volume and variety. *In this forty-year period of industrial expansion the world has used more of its mineral resources than in all preceding history.*" There already is evidence that after this furious and carefree spurt, we feel the need of a change of pace. Although some of the minerals stored up over millions of years are virtually irreplaceable, others are not. How heavily we are drawing upon these stored resources is indicated by the fact that whereas in 1880 only 30 per cent of the United States' energy needs were met by exhaustible resources (coal, oil, and natural gas), today the figure is 85 per cent. We are casting about for other sources of supply for both energy and materials.

In seeking new sources of supply we are beginning to study our land for its potentialities in filling the gap which depletion of exhaustible stored resources will cause. There has been no real consciousness of the soil as an indispensable means for obtaining use of the sun's energy, both for men and machines. It has not occurred to most of us that, for example, the energy of a single bushel of cornmeal is equivalent to the energy of three gallons of gasoline. Automobile bodies may be manufactured from soy beans rather than from steel. For this energy and material we may come to depend heavily upon the land and its products. Yet, we find the land badly off, its fertility being sapped, the topsoil furrowed by erosion. For the plain fact is that so far man, soil, and water have got on badly. To use the land, man has stripped away the forests and vegetal cover and exposed the soil to tragic erosion by the rains. Eroding rains flood the topsoil and its fertility down to rivers and the sea. We must accept the fact that not only stored-up minerals are exhaustible; the land as a continuing source of materials and energy is likewise exhaustible if not properly used.

2. Resources To Sustain Life May Be Replaced

Fortunately, man has learned what products of nature are essential to his continued existence and comfort, which of those products are exhaustible, and which of these products are replaceable. Scientific knowledge will enable us to choose between one kind of raw material and another, between one source of energy and another. We no longer have to choose the source closest at hand, or easiest to use, or the most economical when measured by money. Scientific research has made it possible to choose the sources which will last the longest.

But the people must know. They must know the essential facts and they must know the principles as a basis for acting in accordance with the facts. Yet the known processes for more efficient and beneficial resource utilization have not been interpreted and passed to the people so that they may develop both desire and ability to reduce problems and accept opportunities. It is clear that we can safely depend on the land as a new means of getting energy and materials to compensate for our past exploitation of exhaustible resources only if we restore and maintain its reproductive capacity. The land, too, is suffering from man's unthinking and uninformed practices of resource exploitation. These practices are making inroads on most of our vital resource supplies.

Responsibility for diffusion of basic knowledge which must underlie general utilization of the nation's resources falls inescapably upon the educational agencies. In order to indicate specifically how the public schools and other agencies can more effectively fulfill the responsibility for adequate resource education, it will be necessary to (1) point out a framework for effective use of resources; (2) examine existing educational emphasis on resource study; (3) suggest a framework for education in the use of resources; and (4) suggest some initial procedures schools may follow toward achieving adequate instruction for education in the use of natural resources.

II. THE FRAMEWORK FOR THE USE OF NATURAL RESOURCES

Because the availability and use of natural resources lie at the root of economic, political, and vocational organization, it is clear that effective education must present a scientific framework of resource use based upon a knowledge of the unity of the natural environment, the unity of the natural and social environments, and the essential factors in the natural environment.

1. Unity of the Natural Environment

Whereas it is true that many resource elements essential to continued life of mankind are not replaceable, it is also fortunately true that man, if he will apply knowledge already at his command, can prolong the use of the most vital resources for many generations. Sun, air, water, land, and plant and animal life operate in a dynamic pattern and at a reproductive tempo which, if left undisturbed, produces a balanced relationship among these factors.¹ Preservation of a bal-

¹ Paul B. Sears, *Life and Environment*, pp. 134-35. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

ance among the factors in the natural environment is the principle which must form the cornerstone for an integrated program of resource education. Nature, in its normal processes before man begins to exploit the soil, maintains a cycle whereby the minerals, especially the exhaustible elements which are taken out of the soil by plants, are largely returned to the same soil by the decay of the whole or parts of the plant every season. Those minerals which pass on from plants to the bodies of animals which feed on them are, under natural conditions, returned to the soil both in the form of excreta and by the decay of the animal body at death. In the natural order of events, the soil-plant-animal relationship becomes a sort of banking system, in which the soil lends certain elements to plants and animals for their use. In order to maintain this "economy" it is necessary that this loan be repaid to the soil through biological and chemical processes.

By keeping this soil-plant-animal relationship on a sound footing, the depletion of soil minerals can be prevented, or the beginning of a land deterioration cycle can be forestalled. In such a cycle, loss of minerals causes inadequate plant and forest growth, and this inadequacy begets soil erosion because water-flow across the land is uncontrolled. But a sound relationship can be maintained by insuring that the tempo of rebuilding soil and plants—the reproductive tempo—is equivalent to or faster than the use of soil elements by plants and animals. This reproductive tempo forms the gear for man's use of the natural environment. If the elements in the natural environment are used so as to violate the natural reproductive tempo, an inexorable force lays waste to the natural environment.

2. Unity of Natural and Social Environment

We must recognize and accept the basic unity which must exist between the natural and social environments. Man is brought into a changing relationship with his natural environment through the technique he wields to use natural resources in phases of economic and social intercourse, such as farming, forestry, mining, industrial processing, and transportation.

Scientific research has shown: (1) in order to sustain the natural environment, the type of resource use and the speed of resource use must be geared to the power of the natural environment to recreate or replenish those resources which man consumes; (2) in order to sustain society, the types of resources used and the rate of their consumption must be geared to the limitations of nature's resource supply and to man's technical, institutional, and scientific facility in adapting his

resource practices to nature's supply of energy and materials.

Tragic evidence of man's failure to respect the need for balanced resource development is vividly illustrated in a passage concerning the industrial development of Ducktown, Tennessee.

How industry came to Ducktown in the mountains of eastern Tennessee a generation ago is one such story: Copper ore was discovered; mining began; a smelter was built. One of the resources of this remote region was being developed; it meant new jobs, income to supplement farming and forestry. But the developers had only copper in their plans. The magnificent hardwood forests to a distance of seven miles were cut and burned as fuel for the smelter's roasting ovens. The sulphur fumes from the stacks destroyed the thin cover that remained; not only the trees but every sign of living vegetation was killed and the soil became poison to life.

The dead land, shorn of its cover of grass and trees was torn mercilessly by the rains; and the once lovely and fruitful earth was cut into deep gullies that widened into desolate canyons twenty and more feet deep. No one can look upon this horror as it is today without a shudder. Silt, swept from unprotected slopes, filled the streams and destroyed fish life. The water was robbed of its value for men, for animals, and for industry, while farther down the stream a reservoir of a private power company was filling with silt. One of Ducktown's resources, copper, had been developed. But all its other resources had been destroyed in the process. The people and their institutions suffered in the end.²

It is obvious, then, that society's scientific use of natural resources must be based on procedures which are consistent in perpetuating the basic unity between the natural and social environment. Individual attitudes, federal and state laws, and general business practices pertaining to resource utilization, should be based on an understanding and recognition of this fact.

3. The Basic Resources: The Elements of Natural Environment³

Having learned from our scientists that man and his environment are interdependent, what are the elements, the component parts, of this environment with which we must come to terms?

Of the ninety-two known elements, about twenty are essential to life. The common resource elements for the production of food include carbon, oxygen, and nitrogen in the air, and oxygen and hydro-

²David E. Lilienthal, *TVA—Democracy on the March*, p. 53. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944.

³Quoted from Ellis F. Hartford, *Our Common Mooring*, pp. 18-19. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 1941; and Howard P. Emerson, *Applications of the Common Mooring: Fundamental Principles in the Utilization of Resources*, pp. 308. Knoxville, Tennessee: Tennessee Valley Authority, revised July, 1943 (mimeographed).

gen in water. Their quantity is inexhaustible, but they exist in forms in which animals, including man, cannot use them for food. Twenty million tons of free nitrogen is contained in the air above every square mile of land, but man cannot capture it for himself.

Plants, however, are able to perform the miracle of capturing the food-making elements of air and water and transforming them into tangible foods. Man depends upon plants for that service. For their own growth, plants draw the raw elements from air and ground water and turn them into the highly organized forms of carbohydrates, fats, and proteins. About 95 per cent of the life material of plants—and of animals also—is made of the inexhaustible elements in air and water.

In order to utilize the inexhaustible elements, plants require minerals from the earth's crust, including phosphorus, potassium, calcium, iron, sulfur, iodine, manganese, magnesium, and cobalt. Animals also require mineral elements in food. Minerals are essential, for example, to the manufacture of proteins by plants, and to the growth of bone and other tissue in animals. The quantity of the minerals is exhaustible. Though the exhaustible elements represent only about 5 per cent of the bodies of plants and animals, they are of primary importance, for they are the keys to unlock the great supplies of the inexhaustible elements.

Nature seems to have anticipated only such withdrawals of the mineral elements as would be necessary for a balanced plant and animal life. For example, only one and one-half pounds of mineral elements is required to grow one hundred pounds of corn. Natural law requires return of the elements to the earth after use to maintain productiveness.

Twenty elements include most of the mineral content needed to support life and these same elements are the ones most commonly used in large quantities by industry. This does not mean that many of the other elements are not essential. Industry, in fact, is trying to make use of all of them in one way or another. Hence, no list limited to twenty can be entirely satisfactory.

III. THE FRAMEWORK FOR EDUCATION IN THE USE OF NATURAL RESOURCES

1. "Conservation Education" as a Basis for Understanding Resources

A review of the current teaching of resource use reveals a failure to develop an understanding of the relation of resources to the comprehensive picture of natural and human processes. One available measure of the usual educational approach to resource study is to be

found in a survey of standard textbooks on conservation of natural resources.⁴ These texts generally present minerals, soil, forests, water, and wild life as separate subject-matter fields. This is not to imply that no mention is made of the relationship between the various natural resources. It does mean, however, that the basic unity of the natural environment is rarely the point of departure for resource study; the unity is implied rather than emphasized.

By thus putting the emphasis on the resource *per se*, the conservation text gives insufficient treatment to the relationship between each of the different elements of the total natural environment—sun, air, water, land, and plant and animal life. Consequently, the unity and balance between these factors is rarely made clear.

Another difficulty with some conservation texts is the fact that problems resulting from resource misuse or development—soil erosion, burned and stripped forest areas, and floods, to mention only a few—while rightly enough viewed as symbols of uninformed or unsocial action, are too often deplored, prescribed for cure, yet inadequately placed in proper social perspective. For example, it is oversimplified and inaccurate to discuss soil erosion in the southern United States abstractly without indicating the effect that the farm-tenant system, inadequate farm credit, and single-crop farming have on the social pattern which results in tragic soil erosion and, therefore, in human erosion. An understanding of the relation of these social factors to the erosion of land and to the people is essential to future social action by the student.

Furthermore, along the discussion of "problems" of resource exploration, conservation education too often presents a negative solution for the "problem." Resources are thought of as things to be "saved" or withdrawn from use; resources are, so it seems, to be put into banks for safekeeping. Yet the crux of resource education must lie in a positive solution to problems, a solution in terms of scientific use. The emphasis should be on what the scientific choice is and how it can be made.

Finally, conservation texts usually reflect the interest and training of the specialist or specialists who prepare the material. This intensifies the problem of presenting a unified treatment of resource

⁴ Richard T. Ely, *et al*, *The Foundations of Natural Prosperity*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1923; C. N. Elliot, *Conservation of American Resources* Atlanta: T. E. Smith & Co., 1940; A. F. Gustafson, *et al*, *Conservation in the United States*. Ithaca, New York: Comstock Publishing Co. 1939; A. E. Parkins and J. R. Whitaker, *Our Natural Resources and Their Conservation*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1939.

relationship. For example, the soil scientist may go deeply into the problems of soil structure, quality, and quantity; the forester is likely to feature technical aspects of silviculture far beyond the needs of the general student. When different specialists write separate chapters for a text, the result is fragmentary and is far from representing satisfactory integration or balance in emphasis. This criticism can be made of many excellent symposiums such as works by Van Hise, Ely, Havameyer, Parkins and Whitaker, and Gustafson.

From these facts one must conclude that the facts on resources usually are not adequately integrated into a balanced framework for educational presentation. As a result, while the available textbooks may be valuable for studies of natural resource subject-matter fields, they often reflect no common theme on what constitutes the proper scope, the most effective methods of study, and the specific educational purposes of resource study. Nevertheless, the growing interest in resources, and the excellent materials which have been produced as conservation education has evolved during the past forty years, furnish a valuable point of reference for effective resource study.

2. Learning Units in the Use of Natural Resources

The first purpose of education in the use of resources is to create an understanding of the unity of nature. The introduction of sun, water, land, and plant and animal life should be carried out so as to indicate the role which each of these factors plays in the web of life.⁵ The second purpose is to develop an appreciation of the interdependence of man and his natural environment. And the third purpose is to teach the ABC's of the elements and their sources in the natural environment. Each of these purposes must be accomplished for children and adults to attain successful adjustment to living and to comprehend the significance of the several physical or social studies or experiences to which they are subjected.

What specific lessons must be learned to understand these three

⁵ Some excellent sources of scientific information on the ecological unity of the natural environment are as follows: W. C. Allee, *Animal Aggregations*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931; W. C. Allee, *Animal Life and Social Growth*. Baltimore: William & Wilkins, 1932; J. Braun-Blanquet, *Plant Sociology*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1932; F. E. Clements, *Plant Succession*. Washington: Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1916; Richard Hesse, *Ecological Animal Geography*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1937; W. B. McDougall, *Plant Ecology*. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger, 1927; A. S. Pearse, *Animal Ecology*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1926; A. F. W. Schimper, *Plant Geography*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1903; Eugenius Warming, *Oecology of Plants*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1909.

basic purposes of education in use of natural resources? The report of the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education has suggested the topics for learning which are applicable to this approach.⁶

1. The interdependence of sun, land, water, and plant and animal life.

The ecological relationships existent among the various elements of the natural environment; how there is a natural balance among these elements if they are left undisturbed.

2. What happens when the natural relationship (ecological) among the elements of the natural environment is disturbed.

The consequences of disturbing the relationship among the elements of the natural environment in terms of soil erosion, streams filling with silt, floods, the loss of fertility from the soil, and other such problems. The focus here, though, should be primarily on what happens to the natural environment.

3. Man's dependence on the natural environment.

In terms of man's use of natural resources, the extent to which he is dependent on the elements of the natural environment.

4. Ways in which man disturbs the natural balance between the elements of the natural environment and the consequent effect on man.

In terms of various economic and social activities, how man disturbs the natural balance and how he suffers directly as a result of these exploitive practices.

5. The significance of nonreturnable and returnable resources.

The two major types of resources, returnable and nonreturnable, and the social and economic activities directly dependent upon an undisturbed flow of these resources into our economic life.

6. What happens when irreplaceable resources are no longer available.

The object of this unit should be dramatically to point up the dilemma which would face society if these resources were no longer available.

7. The possibilities of substituting returnable for nonreturnable resources.

8. How man has a choice in the use of his resources and the results of his making the right choice.

For example, how changing from single commercial crop-farming activity to a diversified type of land use can be beneficial both to man and his natural environment. The emphasis should be on the fact that there is a choice involved.

9. How the choice can be guided by education, government, business, and the individual responsibility incumbent on members of society to make the scientific choice.

⁶Based upon John E. Ivey, Jr., *Channeling Research Into Education*. A Report of the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

Many teachers and schools will look on resource education as being an extension of basic courses or emphases which have existed in their instructional programs for quite some time. To perhaps a larger group, however, resource education will represent a new undertaking and a reorientation of their existing program. Both groups—one in an effort to restudy and evaluate the existing program of resource study, the other in shaping plans to introduce the subject to existing courses in the curriculum—will face many problems in achieving more effective instruction in resource education.

In either case, the primary objective is that pupils and citizens learn the twenty or so ABC's of the natural environment, the natural unity of that environment, and the interdependence of man and nature. This core of understanding is clearly essential to the integration of the fragmentary studies in economics, political science, sociology, biology, physics, geography, and in any course which seeks to achieve meaning in terms of human security and growth. The elements of the environment are so simple, on the other hand, that the youngest child can learn the meaning to him of clear, flowing streams, healthy plants, and the light and warmth of electricity. One of the first tasks of the teacher or of the group of teachers is to relate teaching to the scientific truths of resources, man's dependence upon them, and the relation of his special subject to the understanding of those truths.

It is desirable, however, at the seventh- or eighth-grade level, to present the concepts of resource use in specific learning units and to relate the study of specific resource problems to those concepts. The topical outline suggested previously is arranged to give the needed sequence of understanding and could form the point of departure for the general course.

3. Curriculum Review

To achieve effective integration of resource topics into the total elementary- and secondary-school curriculum, and to develop emphasis upon this integrated study at the junior high school level, require very careful planning by the curriculum-makers and faculties. A planning procedure whereby fifteen counties in western North Carolina introduced resource education to the school systems illustrates how an integrated program may be developed.

Western Carolina Teachers College, the county school superintendents in the area which the college serves, the State Department of Education, and the University of North Carolina held a six weeks' work-conference in resource education during June and July of 1944.

Its major purpose was planning for the introduction of resource study into the public school curriculum through a teacher-training and school program-planning conference.

Procedures of work were devised to: (1) familiarize teachers with existing resource utilization problems and opportunities of the sub-region, the research and teaching materials relating to their resources, the use of nonschool technical personnel as consultants in studying local programs, and the importance and procedure for bringing the local community into co-operative resource study with the school; (2) produce an outline of special courses in resource education related to the needs of the area concerned; (3) produce an elementary- and secondary-school program plan which integrates resource study within the existing courses; (4) produce a teachers' handbook on these topics to serve as a guide for teachers in the fifteen counties; and (5) suggest procedures for production of localized instructional materials by teachers.

One of the features of the entire program was an extensive exhibit of research materials, different types of instructional materials, and popular source books on resources and problems of the southern United States. This material was on exhibit in the conference library, along with posters, charts, and maps on the same theme. Extensive use was made of moving pictures and film strips as mediums for resource study.

The first two weeks of the six-weeks' program was devoted to an intensive study of the general aspects of resource education. In the mornings the entire group attended seminars which were under the direction of the work-conference leader. In the afternoons sessions were held to allow full discussion of morning lectures and the presentation of information on related topics by student members of the work-conference.

Beginning the third week, the general morning sessions were devoted to studies of the resource-use problems of western North Carolina. Specialists from state departments, the State Planning Board, the State Agricultural Extension Service, and the Tennessee Valley Authority conducted lecture and discussion sessions on land use, minerals, stream sanitation, flood control, rural electrification, housing, and community planning. These subjects were interpreted in terms of possible action programs for local and state agencies.

The afternoon sessions of the last four weeks were used for the work of four committees, each dealing with a special topic, but often meeting in joint sessions. One committee produced an outline of a special course in resource study; another drew up an elementary- and

secondary-school plan to integrate resource study with other courses; still another committee formulated procedures which could be followed by teachers in the production of local materials; the conference planning committee, consisting of the work-conference director and three conference participants, took the work of the other committees and integrated it for the production of a teacher handbook on resource education. Special consultants were available for each committee.

During the last week of the conference, principals and teachers of the schools represented worked as teams, adopting plans for resource education in their school. These plans included follow-up programs in consultation with the State Department of Education, the faculty of Western Carolina Teachers College, and personnel of nonschool agencies in the state.

4. Resource-use Problems in Community Study

After resource utilization has been underscored in the curriculum as a problem of gearing resource use to nature's power of replenishment, the next approach is to study localized examples of the success or failure of men to observe the unity of society and nature in resource use. The community may be used as a laboratory of living examples of types of resource use. These types of resource use should be viewed as systems of continuously adjusting relationships between man and his resources. "Problems" of resource use—soil erosion, deserted forest communities, polluted streams, silt-filled rivers, to mention only a few—should be studied as symbols of unscientific resource-use procedures, as essentially problems of man's unsuccessful adjustment to the natural environment.

A practical way for the classroom teacher to study problems of adjustment between man and the natural environment can be illustrated by presenting a framework of questions which can be applied to either the local, regional, or national community: ⁷

1. What problems are to be taken as indications of inadequate resource utilization?
2. What usable and reliable descriptive study materials are available on these problems?
3. From an examination of such materials and field observations:
 - a. What patterns of resource use can be recognized and defined as being causally related to these problems?
 - b. What human groups are involved?
 - c. What larger social institutions or organizations are involved?
 - d. What social values or group attitudes are in conflict?

⁷Based upon John E. Ivey, Jr., *op cit.*

- e. What natural resources are involved?
- f. How are these resources being used in relationship to each other?
- g. Where are the inadequate use relationships between man and his resources revealed?
- h. How long have such relationships existed?
- i. Has the existence of such use-patterns exhausted or damaged the natural, human, and social resources involved? If so, how?
4. What use-patterns of readjustment are needed?
5. What natural, human, and social resources that were formerly used inadequately are now available for new uses to meet the defined need?
6. What examples of adjustment may be studied?
 - a. Are there any case studies or examples of communities that have made adequate adjustments to similar resource-use situations?
 - b. Can these experiments be examined for effective technique and process and applied to the situation under study?
7. What will adjustment require? What changes or modifications in the nature or use of resources will be required in making the adjustment?

In addition to the curriculum outline, one of the major problems of developing effective instruction on resources will be the need to have up-to-date information on the materials used for instruction on resources. Effective resource study will have to be related to the community and state in which the students live. The general conservation texts available today, however, deal primarily with the national classifications of resources. This situation will probably continue to exist until states begin to stimulate the production of material on their own resources. Even when state resource texts are available, however, classroom teachers will still have the problem of localizing illustrations.

To localize materials the teacher may wish to prepare teaching units or revise technical materials into form and content useful for classroom instruction. This work will require that teachers have access to up-to-date research documents and also be equipped with the skills necessary to use these documents in their everyday instructional activities.

In the field of natural resources, state governments are well provided with agencies to furnish needed information. There are the state departments of conservation, game and fish, rivers, forestry, and water. Every state government has these service agencies either as separate state departments or as bureaus. Moreover, a tremendous amount of information on natural resources is available from regional and federal agencies, such as bureaus or special divisions of the United States Department of Agriculture and the United States Department of the Interior.

The overwhelming volume of printed material available from such organizations makes it necessary that materials be selected for their value in illustrating certain fundamental principles and problems in resource use. For this reason it is usually necessary to appraise the quality of the material by the reputation of the organization from which it is drawn. The teacher obviously is not trained to be a subject-matter expert in all the varied fields from which information must be gathered.

While the nonschool agencies listed above are sources of research materials, the public schools can also draw on the same groups for consultation and interpretation of local resource-use problems. Nearly all the agencies mentioned have technical personnel who can be made available to the schools to assist them in programs of resource study. As the public schools turn toward a study of local resources, as well as the resource-use problems in the larger national picture, their programs can be made increasingly realistic and practical by closer co-operation with these nonschool agencies who are working with or are interested in resource development.

State departments and colleges of education should take the initiative to work out procedures whereby local schools can draw more on these sources of information in the study of local problems. State-wide, integrated programs for production of materials on resources, state workshops, and special institutions, which would bring together research specialists and teachers, would facilitate the flow of information from nonschool agencies into the public schools.

Resource education is viewed as a problem which falls within the specialized fields of many public agencies. The need for general public understanding of the role resources play in everyday life and the exigencies for scientific resource utilization are so widespread that co-operation between all public agencies is demanded. This co-operation could result in development of education materials and in use of integrated educational procedures which bring the specialized approaches of individual organizations into general harmony with the over-all understanding and use of resources.

IV. SPECIAL RESOURCE STUDIES

It cannot be overemphasized that knowledge of the basic resources, their unity, and their relation to man must be one of the results of public instruction in a democracy. This knowledge provides the core of understanding which young children can begin to acquire in the elementary schools. It lends emphasis and significance to special

courses in the physical and social sciences. It provides the basis for special courses in resource use for the junior high school. The degree of progress in such instruction depends upon the understanding and attitudes of the teachers.

Special problems courses might well be provided in the senior high school, or they might provide the point of departure for the basic instructions at the junior high school level. The following are illustrations of materials prepared by state or regional agencies to assist teachers in preparing their plans for special studies of resources.

1. An Illustration of the Study of Mineral Resources

The first illustration suggests learning activities to be used in a special study of the mineral resources of Oklahoma.

Petroleum, natural gas, coal, lead, zinc. The study group may write and investigate the aids and facilities of the Oklahoma Conservation Commission, State Capitol Building, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. Pamphlet material, bulletins, reports, a bibliography, and other helps are available through this agency.

Following a period of investigation and research, students might find it profitable to formulate plans for saving these mineral resources without sacrificing human needs. For example, gas rather than fuel oil may be used for fuel where there is an abundance of one and a scarcity of the other. Coal may be bought in quantity rather than by the load to save loss in handling. Lead which is not serving immediate needs can be salvaged wherever it is found in its metal state.

A survey might be made of the areas which produce oil, gas, coal, lead, or zinc to discover evidences of good conservation practices. Often, in the days of the get-rich-quick operators there was abundant evidence of waste. With the coming of new emphasis on sound conservation, there has been less waste; but in some areas there may still be undesirable practices in operation which need correction.

A visiting speaker who is an authority on conservation might be secured to outline the current practices to those who are engaged in the special study. An opportunity for class discussion and questions in such an instance, when a speaker answered questions for a group of young people, the interesting fact was revealed that petroleum which has been withdrawn from the earth may be returned again to the underground pool to be extracted later when storage facilities become more available.

A committee on conservation of minerals might collect free and inexpensive materials, bulletins, newspaper clippings, and magazine articles on various phases of the study. The chairman in this instance may find it helpful to index and file the information secured for the use of the school, or other groups.

Conservation in operation can be made graphic and interesting by the use of charts, graphs, maps, and displays as visual aids to learning. Statistical

facts, for instance, may become a reality when expressed in the form of graphs which interested groups design for class use.

If some of the minerals mentioned are produced locally, visits might prove helpful in studying the methods of extraction and preparation for commercial use. Suitable arrangements can be made, if operations at the area permit it, for examining in detail the processing which the commodity must undergo before it is ready for shipping.

Forums, assembly programs, and group discussions may prove helpful in exhausting all sources of information.

Group discussions may reveal that first-hand information is available through students who have lived in various production areas. The privilege of describing, discussing, and evaluating experiences can be a very interesting activity when it is properly guided.⁸

2. An Illustration of the Study of Water Supply

The second illustration represents content selected and printed by the Northwestern Regional Council to provide information for students about the water supply of the Northwest.

The future agricultural, industrial, and population growth of the Pacific Northwest depends to a considerable degree upon the present and potential water supply, and one of the most important problems confronting all but a very limited part of the region is its effective use and management.

The history of civilization, particularly in arid and semi-arid lands, is closely linked with water. The ancient civilizations of Egypt and Babylon developed alongside the life-giving waters of the Nile and the Euphrates, which were the bases of their very existence. Early agricultural techniques, art, philosophy, and religions in lands around the Mediterranean Basin all reflect the degree to which a limited water supply entered into everyday life. Vast areas of once fertile but now unproductive land in India, Arabia, China, and elsewhere, bear witness to what has happened when water supply has failed—often from human misuse or neglect.

The use of water and the provision of additional supplies in deficient areas are vital concerns of the Northwest. West of the Cascades and particularly west of the coast ranges, the westerly winds from the adjacent ocean bring about abundant rains which are generally adequate for diversified agriculture. Even there, however, supplementary irrigation during the long, dry, summer season would increase the productivity of the land. East of the Cascades, marine influences are excluded and semi-arid conditions are the general rule. Over much of this area the rainfall is as little as ten inches. The marked differences in vegetative cover east and west of these mountains indicate Nature's response to differences in water supply. Likewise, water is a major factor

⁸ *The Role of Oklahoma Schools in the War Effort*, pp. 56, 57. State of Oklahoma Department of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1942. Oklahoma City, Oklahoma: State Department of Education, November, 1942.

in the distribution and density of population, in the economic welfare of the region.

The greatest single unifying factor, the most potent element in the past, present, and future development of the Northwest is the Columbia River, which with its tributaries drains an area of 260,000 square miles. These rivers carry an enormous volume of water, but their deeply incised canyons create serious obstacles to the use of that water on the thirsty land through which they pass. The harnessing of the Columbia is a challenge both to the Northwest and to the country as a whole. This challenge has been accepted, and mighty engineering projects are under way which will have far-reaching effects.

The coastal streams also carry abundant water, but, except in the Willamette-Cowlitz-Puget Sound lowlands, the problem is one of surplus rather than deficiency.

The high snow-clad mountains which constitute natural reservoirs are an important factor. Their snow water provides additional supplies in summer when the demand is greatest.

Underground water is less tangible, less easily accessible, and more costly to tap than surface sources. The ready absorption of rain water by the surface of the earth, one important phase of the hydrologic cycle, is not only the principal means of replenishing the natural subsurface reservoirs but is an important factor in the control of soil erosion. In many areas, wells and springs are the only source of water supply. The depth at which ground water is found—the water table—determines in large part its availability both to vegetation and to man.

Measures designed to control run-off are of paramount importance. Storage facilities to regulate stream flow, conserve flood waters, and prevent floods, the protection or replanting of denuded watersheds, and the development of sound land-use practices, are essential to the conservation of water. Such measures will improve navigation on the major streams, increase power facilities, and make additional water available for irrigation. Stream pollution should be prevented in order to protect municipal and domestic water supplies.

What part does water play in the economic life of the region? Water has a wide variety of functions: irrigation, hydropower, navigation, fisheries, recreation, as well as domestic and industrial purposes. The degree to which water can be made to perform as many of these multiple uses as possible is one indication of effective management.

Irrigation is imperative in many parts of the region. At the present time, 3,600,000 acres, slightly less than one-fourth of the total area in crops, depend for their productivity upon irrigation. It will never be possible, however, to water all the land in the region capable of irrigation. Water supplies are inadequate. But, through such multi-purpose dams as Grand Coulee, through a rather widespread construction of small dams to store flood water, it will be possible to increase the irrigated area by several million acres.

The development of large-scale irrigation projects, particularly when large dams are required, is costly—far too costly for private enterprise. Yet

the need is urgent if the economic opportunities of the region are to be fully realized; if the agricultural economy of many parts is to be made more secure; if economic opportunity is to be increased in the Northwest; if the farming elements among the incoming migrants from the Great Plains are to be absorbed effectively. It is to this end that the Federal Government is undertaking major dam projects. Grand Coulee will provide water to irrigate 1,200,000 acres, enough for 20,000 additional farms.

Water supply, wild life, and recreation are all intimately related. The maintenance of conditions conducive to the perpetuation of fish has both commercial and recreational implications. Stream pollution had deadly effects upon the runs of salmon and other valuable species. Unprotected irrigation ditches trap hundreds of fish that stray from the main channel of the rivers. The lowering of the water table results in the deterioration of grazing land.

Water problems have both international and interstate implications. The Columbia crosses the Canadian boarder and action taken on the American side may affect Canadian conditions adversely. Control or development of the Columbia affects Oregon, Washington, and Idaho, and conflicts may arise over water use or water rights. Consequently, a considerable degree of co-operation between riparian states is essential.

Considerable research is needed to determine more exactly the water requirements of various types of land and crops in order to make the most effective use of available as well as potential supplies. What methods and form of organization should be developed for managing lands made productive by Grand Coulee and other irrigation projects? With increased land under cultivation, can markets be found for the products? To safeguard existing farm land is one thing, but to increase the acreage is another. Will the opening up of more farm land intensify existing agricultural problems? Many question the wisdom of expending vast sums to bring additional land under cultivation in the Northwest when elsewhere agricultural production is being curtailed. But, it is also recognized that much land now under cultivation is submarginal and should be retired.⁹

3. An Illustration of the Study of Natural Resources and Industrial Development

The third illustration represents content prepared for teachers to give them background from which to plan special resource studies with their students.

The present world war, which is based on industrial production, dramatizes the whole process of industrial development, of how to find raw materials and convert them into needed products. Also before our minds is the question of whether we can keep our industrial machine running after the war is over.

⁹ "Know Your Northwest" Series, *Pacific Northwest Resources in Outline*, pp. 29-32. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Council Publishers, May, 1940.

What is needed is more industry to balance agriculture in many regions of our country. But we need something more than temporary, hit-or-miss industrial expansion. We are getting that now as a result of our war activities. We have also had it in the past, but it has been based on the depletion of capital resources leaving behind the denuded forests, worn-out soils, and abandoned mining towns, of which we have heard so much.

What we need to consider is whether we can eventually have industrial development without exhausting basic resources; this is the only way we can develop a sound economy which will be permanent in terms of generations of people.

Raw Materials.—The first requirement for industrial development is raw materials. When industrial engineers look for plant sites the first thing they ask is "Where are the raw materials?" We have had to do a lot of thinking about raw materials in the last few years; this war has more or less shaken our confidence in the idea that our country is pretty much self-sufficient in this respect.

If we look at the matter from a fundamental standpoint, what do we have to draw on for the raw materials for industry? We immediately think of minerals, and of the land or the earth's crust as a source of these minerals; but most of the raw materials for industry, 70 per cent of them in fact, come from farm crops or forests which grow on the land. Nor should we forget that the air above the earth, and the water which moves in cycles from the air to the earth and back, are raw materials for industry.

These three sources—air, water, and the land—supply the chemical elements from which everything we use is made. There are 92 of these elements available for industry, but so far only about 20 of them are used to produce our clothing, foods, houses, and nearly everything else we require. It would seem important, therefore, to concern ourselves with the sources of these basic raw materials.

From the air we get carbon, oxygen, and nitrogen; from water, hydrogen and oxygen; and from the earth such important elements as aluminum, calcium, copper, manganese, phosphorus, zinc, sulphur, and iron.

The elements in air and water become available to us from the synthetic processes of nature, which uses them to make starches, sugars, fats, and proteins. So far industry has not been able, and may *never* be able, to get these essential compounds except through nature's process. It has not been able to duplicate nature's manufacture of fibers, but by using the same raw materials—air and water and the earth—nylon, for instance, is made from the nitrogen of the air, hydrogen from water, and carbon and calcium from the earth.

These 20 chemical elements then are the building blocks for industrial development. . . .

With a multitude of sources available for choosing raw materials for industry, we have to date in our industrial history never stopped to consider whether the supply came from exhaustible or inexhaustible sources. We have

taken the raw materials which were cheapest or closest at hand, and the consequences of this policy are seen in the depleted soils, denuded forests, and abandoned mining towns.

Of course, there have been reasons why we did not exercise a choice. One is that we haven't known enough. The example of aluminum is a good illustration, for we have not yet been able to draw on the clays which are all around us for the aluminum we need so badly.

To be able to choose inexhaustible sources for our raw materials requires that we apply a technique fairly recently developed in the world's history, that of scientific research. The success we have met with in applying the research technique in other cases convinces us that we can get aluminum from clay by setting some scientists to work on the problem and giving them the facilities which they need for carrying out the procedures of research.

For permanent industrial development we therefore first need permanent sources of raw materials, which are furnished by nature, but in addition we need man's contribution in the way of research.

Energy.—This same story can be retold by considering the second basic factor of permanent industrial development, that of energy. Again we find that we can make the same distinction as for raw materials. Some of our sources of energy are exhaustible; some of them will last a long time; and some of them will last forever if utilized in the right way. Our sources of energy and power can be checked off on our fingers; on one finger if it is recognized that they all start from the sun. As with raw materials, research must be applied to obtain the "know-how" for industrial production from least exhaustible sources.¹⁰

V. CONCLUSION

The current educational programs of public schools and other agencies are so frequently intrigued by the processes and products that add new thrills to living that they fail to emphasize the importance of the great, fundamental, never-changing resource materials. Many children are never taught the sources of energy; they are rarely shown the storehouse of potential foods and energies from which life is nourished and out of which living bodies are built. The whole course of education seldom represents in one picture the facilities of nature and still more seldom reveals the role of man in the natural pattern. Modern living has become so specialized that in our urge to perfect ourselves for specialization we have almost forgotten the interdependence of man and his resources. As a result, in the field of resources, teaching has frequently led men into blind alleys where they

¹⁰ Howard P. Emerson, *Application of the Common Mooring: Fundamental Principles in the Utilization of Resources*, pp. 115-21. Knoxville, Tennessee: Tennessee Valley Authority, revised July, 1943 (mimeographed).

fail to see the greater opportunity to weave raw products or elements into a higher, richer pattern.

Too little has been taught about the contribution of nature and rarely has stock been taken of the contribution of man. Much of education, much of government, in fact much of society itself, is man's interpretation of his place in the resource patterns. These fundamental facts and laws are not beyond the grasp of the child and should be a major basis for teaching for abundant and satisfying existence.

CHAPTER X

THE COMMUNITY-SCHOOL EMPHASES IN POSTWAR EDUCATION

MAURICE F. SEAY
Director, Bureau of School Service
University of Kentucky
Lexington, Kentucky

"Community school" is the term currently applied to a school that has two distinctive emphases—service to the entire community, not merely to the children of school age; and discovery, development, and use of the resources of the community as part of the educational facilities of the school. The concern of the community school with the local community is intended, not to restrict the school's attention to local matters, but to provide a focus from which to relate study and action in the larger community—the state, the region, the nation, the world. Thus far, more community schools have developed in rural communities than in large cities because of the greater complexity of organization of urban communities. Nevertheless, the community-school idea has significance for all types of communities.

I. THE SCHOOL SERVES ITS COMMUNITY

The possibilities of a school's service to its community are almost limitless. The twelve-grade consolidated school at Holtville, Alabama, operates a tractor and power spraying machine, a printing shop, a woodwork shop, a refrigeration plant, a hatchery, a barber shop and beauty parlor, a picture show, a feed mill, a cannery, and a machine repair shop; these and other enterprises help to vitalize the educational activities of the school and to improve the quality of living in the community.

The Nambé school, located in a typical Spanish-speaking village in New Mexico, is attempting to discover what is most needed in the lives of the people in the community and to "minister to that before all else." Some of the obvious problems are health, infant mortality, social relationships, land management, craftwork, recreation, and command of oral English. The children are taught how to be useful citizens, not only of their own neighborhood but also of the great national

English-speaking community of which their neighborhood is a small, distinctive part.

The Kenmore school system in up-state New York keeps a file of addresses of men and women from the community who are in military service. Each receives a monthly newsletter and a Christmas box. The project is financed by individuals and by clubs and organizations of the community. The school, responsive to opportunity for civic service, has become the center for this unique service to more than 2,500 representatives of the community.

Ascension Parish, located in an agricultural section of Louisiana, has undertaken a program of family-life improvement in all of its schools, white and Negro. Some of the objectives of the program are to improve health and nutrition, to develop marketing facilities, and to establish closer relationships between the home and the school. The parish has established a bureau which provides the schools with books, pamphlets, pictures, films, and other instructional materials. These materials have been specially selected to aid in the accomplishment of the new objectives.

The Parker District High School serves a predominantly industrial community near Greenville, South Carolina. Some of the special features of the school's program are its vocational building with welding and machine shops, power-sewing and textile equipment, drafting department, commercial department, arts and craft shop; its automobile body and fender shop; its warehouse with storage space and wood-working department; its prenatal and postnatal health clinic and maternity hospital; and its 100-acre camp, used the year round by pupils and faculty and by adults of the community.

A school can serve its neighborhood in countless ways, the nature of which is determined by the needs and resources of the community. Whatever direction the school's services may take, they can lead to broader boundaries than those of the neighborhood itself, for the child who learns to live usefully and happily in his own community can more easily learn the responsibilities of citizenship in the nation and in the world

II. THE COMMUNITY SERVES ITS SCHOOL

The community can serve its school in as many ways as the school can serve the community. For a school which centers its program in community resources, the community provides demonstration plants in the businesses, the industries, and the occupations of the people. It furnishes laboratory experience in its physical and geographic char-

acteristics and in its social and economic conditions. The historical and cultural distinctions of the neighborhood constitute a basis for greater concepts of history and culture. The civic organizations and activities provide opportunities for growth in civic responsibility. Every individual, every group of individuals—the church, the civic organization, the social club, the welfare agency—has a contribution to make to the educational program of the school. The community school recognizes the value of these contributions and makes use of them.

III. THE PLACE OF SUBJECT MATTER IN THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

Not all community schools are committed to the same scheme of curriculum organization. A school need not relinquish even a formal subject-matter organization when it undertakes a program built upon neighborhood resources. It need only shift emphasis. English can still be taught, but taught to be used, not merely to be learned. In the Holtville high school the English department is largely a service department.

Agriculture students write descriptions of methods of treating peach trees for borers, plans of work, and reports of field trips. . . . They make oral reports in class. They read bulletins, magazines, textbooks, and storybooks. Science students write up the experiments they perform in the laboratory. They make talks explaining the arrangement of apparatus or the reaction of chemicals. Boys in the printing shop study and use rules of punctuation and capitalization. They write business letters, friendly letters, and do other assignments as the need arises. They get practice in oral expression when visitors ask them to explain the operation of a machine.

The English teacher helps students select good things to read. She finds special exercises for those weak in certain things, such as spelling or punctuation.

The Readers' Group is composed of advanced students representing each English class, who have prepared themselves to be assistants to the English teacher. They are earnest students and are quite helpful in checking papers. . . . Some in this group have made unusual progress and are now capable of correcting the written work of other students.

In addition to individual opportunities for English . . . there are scores of group undertakings. Sometimes when these are in classes other than English, the teacher in charge or the students will seek the assistance of the English teacher. She is invited to . . . aid the health group word a letter to the man they are asking to conduct the box supper which they are sponsoring in order to raise money for a dental clinic; help a group in Home Economics get in good form an outline of personality traits; attend the last two state rehearsals of the flag-day program and make suggestions about posture and voice. . . .

On these occasions, the English teacher often reaches students who ordinarily take little or no interest in English, as such, but who readily see the importance of doing well the job they are on, and in so doing actually improve their speaking, reading, or writing at the same time they are accomplishing something important to them.¹

Language, science, arithmetic—the departmentalized subject matter of formal education—have a place in the curriculum of the neighborhood school. Most of this knowledge is even more important in direct application than it is in theory. If John is actually raising chickens, he must know how to compute feed costs; if he is merely solving a textbook problem about the cost of feed, he can afford, at least financially, to make a mistake. If John and his family and his neighborhood can profit from his learning to raise chickens, the school teaches him how, and at the same time gives him an incentive for learning arithmetic and other “school subjects” which he might otherwise have found quite dull.

Any phase of community life can be the foundation for the teaching of “school subjects.” A science teacher at Lafayette School, Fayette County, Kentucky, describes the study of housing in his class.

The introduction of housing into our school program began with the study of the various building materials. The reasons for using these materials were explained from mechanical, aesthetic, and utilitarian points of view.

The class made a field trip to a house in the early stages of construction. They saw the skeleton framework, two-by-four uprights, laths, attic ventilation, subflooring, electrical outlets and conduits, rafters, chimney, and wall insulation. . . .

The house was a frame building which demonstrated the arrangement of floor space, plumbing, wiring, steps, and closet space for two families. In the basement the drainage system was still uncovered and the connections with other sewer pipe could be seen. The arrangement in the basement for the furnace, coal, steps, and shelves was well planned. Windows on all sides provided for a well-lighted cellar. The foundation was of native stone.

A nearly completed brick house was the next type that was visited. . . . The contractor explained to the pupils the natural and artificial lighting provisions and discussed with them sizes and locations of the rooms, height of ceilings, arrangement of windows for cross ventilation, closet space, and the landscaping of the grounds. . . .

The visit to the basement showed the arrangement of an indoor garage, a well-drained concrete floor, steel window frames, and space for fruit storage. The principle on which a stoker operates was demonstrated by a

¹ Whilden Wallace, James Chrietzberg, and Verner M. Sims, *The Story of Holtville, A Southern Association Study School*. In co-operation with the Southern Association Study Staff. Holtville, Alabama: Holtville School District, 1944.

man who was installing one in the basement during our visit.²

The teacher goes on to explain the many activities which grew out of this field trip, such as a collection of samples of materials used in the construction of buildings, a study of the various kinds of bricks and methods of manufacturing brick, experiments with the amount of water the different kinds of bricks would absorb, and studies of the uses of bricks and the kinds of stone used in building. These activities resulted in a great increase in reading while the pupils were trying to find the answers to the questions raised.

The results of a school program based upon the needs and resources of the community which it serves—and which serves it—are beneficial not only to the community but to the school itself. Children and adults who study community problems and the resources available for their solution have an exciting motive for learning. Reading, writing, and typing, history and science, and the composition of the Diesel engine are important to the child or the adult who has an immediate use for them and who can see, in practicing or learning them well, an advantage to himself, his family, and his associates.

IV. WHY COMMUNITY INTERESTS SHOULD RECEIVE EMPHASIS IN THE CURRICULUM OF THE POSTWAR PERIOD

The school and the community have a close complementary relationship in their best development. The community provides the context from which the students' problems and educational needs arise. The community also gives opportunity for the application of school learning and the extension of meanings developed in the educational program. Furthermore, only through the co-ordination of out-of-school experiences with those in school can the difficult tasks of education be accomplished.

Viewed from the standpoint of the community, the school can be a major factor in community improvement. The intellectual leadership, the enthusiastic energy, and the trained abilities of staff and students can make great contributions to the economic, social, intellectual, and aesthetic life of the community.

The school that accepts as a major aim of its entire program the improvement of community life evaluates the various phases of education on the basis of their contribution to the achievement of this aim. The many subjects and departments and activities are thus focused upon a common goal and this process provides a means for

² Maurice F. Seay and Leonard E. Meece, *Introducing Housing into School Curricula*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, XIV (September, 1941), 38-39.

overcoming a common defect of many schools, namely, isolated subjects, unrelated courses, and nonsequential experiences. The focus of the school upon community service can give a well-balanced and co-ordinated program, as the relationships and objectives of different activities are established.

Certain new and special developments in American society make necessary an increased emphasis in school curriculums upon community resources and their development, preservation, and utilization.

1. *In most communities of America there have developed during the war, and there will be developing in the postwar era, many serious problems growing out of the war—problems of political, social, and economic nature.*

To ignore such problems in the educational program is to deny that education has any obligation to assist the community in the solution of its problems. The recent economic depression, threatening as it did the very existence of our society, pointed out the necessity of a type of education for economic improvement. The subsequent period of confusion over the dread and the actuality of war again provided a major challenge to the schools since the problems required for their solution a more adequate education of the people. These experiences have led educational leaders to urge that the schools concern themselves with local, state, national, and international community problems.

2. *There is an increasing tendency among local units of public service to attempt to solve as many important local problems as possible.*

Educators have long advocated local autonomy in school control. Consistently, they have desired that education assist other public services in the solution of community problems. To the extent that local agencies accomplish this aim, unwholesome forms of state and federal control will be avoided.

A community school initiates or helps to initiate public services beneficial to the interests of the community and, if necessary, undertakes the initial control and administration of such services. It is the responsibility of the school to develop community understanding of the value of such services, in order that the community may decide for itself whether a service should be continued under school control and administration or should be turned over by the school to another appropriate agency or individual in the community.

3. *At the same time there is an increasing demand by the public and within the profession for functional education; and functional*

education, to be effective, should utilize community educational resources.

The war has set a new standard of values for education. In an economy characterized by great demands for ability in personnel and operational management, for technical skill, for scientific training, for civic leadership and co-operative capacities, for the power to speak and write effectively, this question is often raised: "Did your education help you in your work?"

Are our educational programs functional? Education is functional when it provides the opportunity for an individual to learn, in relation to his resources, the skills, information, and attitudes required to solve a problem, to meet a need, or to work usefully and happily.

The problems of individuals in our complex society are very largely community problems; at least, they have a relationship to community resources and interests. A school that endeavors to provide functional education will draw upon the community both as a source of teaching material and as a resource for developing desired educational outcomes.

4. *Leaders in the profession are, and will be, determined that the school take the initiative in meeting legitimate new educational needs of the community, rather than wait for outside governmental or pressure groups to force action.*

During the war, as previously during the depression, the schools have been frequently requested or forced by other agencies to give attention to specific community problems. The Arkansas legislature has passed a law requiring the teaching of conservation in the public schools; the American Automobile Association has requested the schools of America to give attention to community safety problems; federal agencies have urged the teaching throughout the school program of food production, preservation, and utilization. Many more illustrations could be given. Private and governmental agencies have at times even established new educational organizations to handle problems of communities.

With the experience of the past fifteen years in mind, leaders in education believe that the administrators and teachers of schools should be the first to recognize community problems which in their solution involve the educational method. Although the schools should always welcome suggestions from other agencies, they should take the initiative in educational progress. Educational programs sponsored by pressure groups or by agencies interested in only one problem can hardly achieve the balance essential to a community program.

5. *Local customs and values are, and will be, in a state of change*

and conflict because of shifting populations and consequent contacts with unfamiliar practices and ideologies.

Servicemen and women and war workers returning to their former homes are bringing memories of experiences with community customs different from their own. Some will be discontented with the old practices; some will advocate changes. The school in the community may become the stabilizing force for desirable community solidarity, providing a public forum for discussions of public problems. Community educational programs will include courses for children and for adults, in which the social scene is studied and interpreted.

6. *The end of the war may occasion a resurgence of unwholesome community pride and prejudice.*

One danger inherent in the peace that follows a long, bitter, and costly war is a chauvinistic attitude which finds expression in national or regional or even personal individualism. War involves shifting populations under emergency conditions, inadequate housing, strained transportation, unappetizing food, discomfort and deprivation. Soldiers and workers returning home may experience a revulsion of feeling for strange places and strange faces—a withdrawal into the home community and a lone personality. Isolationism is as dangerous to an individual or to a community as it is to a nation. The school, as it becomes concerned with community problems, may help the community to avoid this danger. The study of community problems and resources involves the study of relationships of one community with another, of one state with another, and of one nation with another. Such study can develop the concept that each small community is only part of a regional community with definite problems; and that regions and nations and continents with their problems are only parts of a world community with its multiplicity of problems.

V. SOME PRINCIPLES WHICH SHOULD GUIDE THE DEVELOPMENT OF A COMMUNITY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The principles which follow are emerging from a variety of successful experiments and demonstrations on the part of community schools.

1. *Since education is a continuous process, it cannot be confined within fixed administrative divisions; but for education to be most effective there must be co-ordination of all educational services in a community.*

The conception that education is a continuous process is not new. The application of this conception to a planned community program of education for all age levels, however, is only now beginning to be

attempted in an appreciable number of communities. But the fact that there still exist programs of education with independently functioning services, supported and administered by unco-ordinated agencies, reflects a long-existing confusion in educational thought. This situation carries the unfortunate implication that education has no continuity or unity—rather, that it consists of unrelated and intermittent phases, of separate entities to be dispensed at the discretion of the educatory agent.

In most communities a variety of agencies supply parts of the total educational experiences of children and youth. The Sunday School, the Scout organization, the Y.M.C.A., the city recreation department, the city library, the public health unit, the separately organized nursery school and kindergarten, private or public, and the public school system with its elementary and junior and senior high schools—all these educational organizations contribute to the education of the individual, but in too many cases their contributions are disorganized and haphazard.

In the Tennessee Valley Authority town of Norris, Tennessee, such agencies do not exist as separate factors. The community's total educational program is co-ordinated under the direction of the superintendent of education. The nursery school and kindergarten, the elementary and secondary schools, the recreational program, the public library, the health unit—all are parts of a planned program and receive their support and their supervision from the same source. Such details as arrangement of space and equipment, time schedules for classes and programs, and allocations of staff are carefully planned in this centralized administration. Of course, it would be extremely difficult to inaugurate such an organization in a community where different agencies have been established and have become generally accepted parts of the social and governmental *status quo*. The local public school systems of some communities could, however, expand their programs to include some of these activities and could assume leadership in developing and sponsoring procedures for co-ordination of the activities of the different agencies.

The very nature of educational organization places the administrator in a key position to promote or to deter the development of a program based upon this fundamental principle of education. Too frequently an administrative officer, whether in a school system, a public library, or a recreation unit, sincerely feels that the program which his organization conducts is efficient and sufficient without any planned effort to co-ordinate that program with educational activities of other

agencies; he may feel that some of the other phases of education are after all nonessential; he may even resent the appearance of new educational activities because they encroach upon the sources of financial support for his program. If the administrator has any of these or other negative attitudes, the educational process probably will continue to be handicapped by a lack of co-ordination of the various phases of education which are administered by different agencies.

The special factors which necessitated the training and educational program of the Tennessee Valley Authority demanded a great variety of activities. These activities were administered through a central unified control. At other centers where the community to be served is not entirely new, and where different local educational agencies have existed for a long while, co-ordination rather than unified control is the way to get a more integrated educational program for the community. This requires the co-operation of the different organizations in the planning and in the operation of the program.

The forming of representative councils or committees is a technique which has been followed with reasonable success. No single pattern applicable in its entirety to all or even to many communities can be devised, however. It is especially important for the leaders of the various educational agencies to recognize that their activities taken separately do not comprise a total program of education and that co-operative efforts with other agencies are essential. When the leaders meet to formulate a total program planned to achieve major objectives—objectives vital to the community—some satisfactory arrangement for the co-ordination usually becomes evident.

The administrative arrangements of a particular unit may also have to be changed in getting better educational integration. For example, the teachers in the Tennessee Valley Authority schools were first employed for ten months a year. Better co-ordination of educational experiences required planning for education in the summer months. Hence, all of the educational staff members were employed for twelve months a year with allowance of vacation time. When this change was made, the regular term of the school was not lengthened, but special programs for the summer months were planned in an attempt to make the learning that occurs during these months contribute to the objectives of the educational program of the community. Since educators agree that effective education must be a continuous process, administrative practices should be analyzed in light of this principle. In most communities, this would undoubtedly result in changes both in internal administration and in relationships with other agencies.

2. *When educational activities are based upon the needs and interests of those for whom they are planned, community problems assume primary importance in the school's curriculum, and the school utilizes the community's resources in the solution of community problems.*

Methods and programs for effective use of our human and material resources are being given careful consideration by many community agencies. The community school has a continuity of interests. Therefore, as the school bases its program upon the needs and interests of individuals, it intensifies its study of community problems; and as solutions to community problems are sought, study of community resources is increased.

The study of a community's natural resources³ is one way of contributing to effective use of human resources. Such study illustrates the necessity of giving consideration to the relationships between the problems of different communities. For example, the leaders of social and economic agencies have learned from the intensive study of life in the country that in many areas the condition of the soil is growing worse with each generation. Natural resources have been exploited. Many of the most capable people, as well as some of least ability, drift from rural communities to the cities. Those who remain continue to exploit their natural resources, frustrated by the very impoverishment which they create. As a result, these people sometimes, even today, become public responsibilities; sometimes they become inefficient laborers in industry; sometimes they become inmates of institutions; and always they become a hidden threat to American democracy. Such conditions are not inevitable in many of these communities. Some of the natural resources remain; others can be restored.

In many schools, however, there is very little relationship between the subject matter taught and the pressing problems of conservation, restoration, and utilization of natural resources. Although the current economic conditions require intelligent understanding and treatment by the public generally, a review of the educational situation has exposed—with welcomed exceptions—school systems still limiting their activities to drill in a few skills, with the additional service on behalf of those who reach high school of tutoring in the traditional content of the college preparatory subjects. The schoolroom is a place apart from the outside world; the school day is devoted solely to academic pursuits. Educators have recognized that many of our education programs are not accomplishing certain long-recognized objectives—to free man and enable him to control his environment, to dignify his

³The possibilities inherent in the study of natural resources are considered at greater length in chap. ix.

personality and stimulate his social consciousness, to prepare him for participation in the democratic way of life.

Educational programs actually based upon analyses of community economic conditions continue to teach the tools of learning and to prepare students for professional education in the institutions of higher learning, but these long-accepted aims are being accomplished through new subject matter and new educational experiences selected because of their significance for community problems and resources.

Community studies are not to be regarded as helpful only because they can bring about a solution to the community problem; they also serve as vehicles for understanding other related and more complex problems or processes. For example, a school project in seeking to get adequate representation from ethnic groups in the community on the educational council may become a means for understanding the ethnic composition of the community, and may initiate at least a partial understanding of the intercultural problems that today have such major social significance. The solution of the local community problem in this case would be a minor achievement compared to the broader understanding opened up by this educational experience.

3 *The democratic method in education is a practicable method to use in an educational program based on community problems and interests.*

Human resources are the greatest asset of any community. Schools too often fail to demonstrate the correct use of the energy of the people. The democratic method in education is most admirably adapted to the effective use of the human energy of a community.

This method is based upon a fundamental and abiding faith in people—the faith that, if people are free and informed, more frequently than not they will do what is best for society; more frequently than not they themselves will find the best answers to their problems. The educator who holds to this fundamental belief can, without fear of result, lend his effort to the support and development of machinery and methods that will give to each individual an opportunity to bring his mental equipment to bear upon the problems of his community.

Fundamental in democratic theory is the belief that, as Ordway Tead puts it, "In group thinking the new ideas evolved are more than the sum of individual ideas." The task of leadership, whether in the classroom or in the community council, is not to tell the student or the council member what to think or what to do but to stimulate the development of ideas among them and to encourage their interest and action.

Experience in educational programs for children and adults has shown that unless the activities are based upon the expressed needs and interests of the learners and are developed and planned in co-operation with them, they fall short of accomplishing results worthy of the time and effort of those who participate. Anyone may have excellent ideas as to what children or adults *ought* to be interested in, what they *ought* to know, and how they *ought* to act. It is essential, however, that those ideas find a basis of mutual understanding and consent among the learners, expressed independently without the pressure of dominating suggestions from someone in a superior position.

The use of the democratic method in a successful community school may be observed in the relationships between pupils, teachers, administrators, the school board, the parents, the community council, and the officials and staffs of other public and private services. The revising of the curriculum to serve community needs is a process in which these relationships are very important

4. *An educational program designed for all age levels of a community is characterized by flexibility—space and equipment serve multiple purposes; the materials of instruction are adaptable and the methods pliable; requirements for attendance and credit are adjustable.*

The wide range of objectives of a school which serves its community necessitates a variety of activities. These activities are conducted under many different conditions and by various procedures. Therefore, it is not strange that there has developed a flexibility of approach which, perhaps more than any other single feature, characterizes a community school. This characteristic will be considered in its relationship to three aspects of a community-school program.

First, the school day, the school week, and the school year are extended. When the program of education is focused upon community needs, schedules are no longer set from eight to three o'clock, from Monday through Friday, and from September to May. Instead, the school schedule may include a span of sixteen hours for some days, of seven days for many weeks, and of twelve months for each year. With these new schedules the work of teachers is staggered according to the need and in such a manner that the teaching loads are not excessive.

Many schools are providing summer work⁴ and camp experiences for their pupils in order to maintain a continuity of education and to develop physical abilities and social relationships. The Parker District School has a year-round camp on a river sixteen miles from the

⁴ The provision of work experiences as part of the school curriculum is treated at greater length in chap. vii.

school; primarily a school project, this camp is used also by the whole community. The laboratory school of the University of Chicago gives its pupils work experience on a farm. Three Michigan communities, Lakeview, Otsego, and Decatur, in co-operation with the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, have undertaken a community-school camp program. The children are given experience in work, in healthful living, in leisure pursuits, and in social living; this experience is carefully planned to contribute to the total education of the children. A great advantage of this type of education is its informality; children have an opportunity to learn through activities they enjoy and through pleasant association.

Summer activities of other types are provided by many community schools. The distributive occupations provide work experience in sales and business for many high-school youths. Scarcity of labor during the war has given opportunities for work to young people, often under the supervision of their schools. Vocational education continues throughout the year for adults as well as for high-school pupils.

Second, space and equipment serve multiple purposes. Some of the schoolrooms, the libraries, and the shops are designed to be used by children during the day and by adults during part of the day and at night. Classrooms are usually equipped with tables and chairs instead of desks, and with bulletin boards, wall racks, and motion picture screens in addition to blackboards. Auditoriums serve either children or adults or both groups for assemblies and motion picture shows. Careful planning makes the buildings and equipment useful for a daily program of fourteen to sixteen hours instead of the typical schedule of six to eight hours. In addition to the economical features, this multiple-purpose use of space and equipment has a practical influence in the development of a program of community education.

Third, the staff of a school which serves the community is called upon to be flexible in its point of view and educational methods. Many teachers of elementary- and high-school pupils also lead adult classes; librarians serve all age groups, not in the library alone, but also in the classroom, the shop, and other community centers; and the libraries contain not only books for loan but also pictures, recordings, games, tool boxes, slides, film strips, and films. The community school has found that willingness to meet new conditions is necessary to solve the variable and unpredictable problems of a present-day community.

5. *The teacher in a community school is a member of the community.*

Teachers who commute daily to their work must assume some re-

sponsibility for the fact that the programs of many schools are alien to community problems and interests. The teachers of a community school either live in the community or have found ways of becoming a vital part of the community without living in it. To encourage the local residence of their teachers, some communities have provided teacherages; other communities have made special appeals to citizens to open their homes to teachers. But techniques must still be found whereby the teacher who continues to commute can become a part of the school community. Education as a community enterprise will not be attained unless this challenge is met.

6. *A community school makes its physical plant and environment a community center and a demonstration of desirable operation and maintenance of property.*

The results of community education are evident in the school's immediate environment. Schoolyards in general represent probably the most poorly cared-for soil in America. Frequently, they are bare of trees and grass, cut by gullies, and littered with debris. Yet children are expected to come regularly to these bleak and uninviting schools with eagerness for learning and with a feeling of happiness in their opportunity. Teachers and pupils who are participating in an effective program of community education make the schoolyard a laboratory; the school environment encourages regular attendance and happiness and success in useful work; the entire school plant and yard are a demonstration in the use and care of public and private property.

VI. HOW CAN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS WHICH CONCERN PROBLEMS PECULIAR TO A COMMUNITY OR A GROUP OF COMMUNITIES BE PREPARED?

Schools may use four types of instructional materials. Most prevalent by far is the type published and manufactured commercially for use throughout the nation; these materials necessarily treat topics of general importance and problems common to as many and as varied areas as possible. Materials of a second type, put out usually by non-profit agencies, are prepared for a group of communities having common problems and similar resources; such materials can give particular and detailed consideration to matters of common concern and interest to these communities. Materials of a third type are prepared by teachers and pupils themselves for immediate use in their own schools; these materials can, of course, be made to apply to the particular or unique problems of a given school and its environment. Materials of a fourth

type are the actual objects, processes, and situations available within the community for direct study.

The usual method of adoption, purchase, and distribution of textbooks makes materials of the first type available to most schools. But even a casual inspection of the textbooks in use gives ready evidence of their lack of relationship to the particular or unique problems of a given community. One adopted reader in general use in Kentucky, for example, contains stories and poems about life in foreign lands, about sheep-shearing in the North and orange raising in the South, about heroes long dead and dragons that never lived; the reader contains little that could help to solve immediate economic problems of Kentucky children. Irrelevancy of content to the needs of a particular community, however, does not condemn such materials. Actually, they have great value in giving pupils general information, pleasant reading, and understanding of situations in other lands and other parts of their own land. But if children are to learn how to live successfully, especially in environments unfavorable to the maintenance of a desirable standard of living, they must also have and use instructional materials of the second, third, and fourth types—materials concerning problems of their communities and the local resources available for improvement of living in their communities.

An illustration of the development of instructional materials appropriate to the needs of given communities is provided by the Sloan Experiment in Applied Economics. This experiment, a project of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, is an attempt to improve community living through education and to measure the extent of any improvement accomplished. Recognizing the unavoidable deficiencies of the prevalent type of instructional materials, the officials of the University of Kentucky and of the Sloan Foundation agreed that the major emphasis of the experiment should be the preparation and evaluation of new instructional materials focused upon a community problem and the resources available for the solution of that problem.

To facilitate and simplify the measurement program, it was decided to direct the experiment toward one community problem only. Interest in one problem, it was felt, would generate and foster interest in other problems vital to the community. Because of the recognized need for improvement in the diet of the nation, and in particular of the Kentucky communities under investigation, food was chosen as the general topic on which new instructional materials should be prepared.

A great deal of research and study has been done on the subject of diet. There exists a vast store of literature—textbooks, handbooks,

research reports, pamphlets and bulletins, magazine and newspaper articles—on the production, preservation, and utilization of food. These sources of information, however, have been prepared usually for adults of above-average educational level.

The task of translating this body of literature into instructional materials suitable for young children was undertaken by the staff conducting the Sloan Experiment in Kentucky. Some of the special problems of the task concerned the selection of material, the manner of presentation, the vocabulary and grade levels, and the mechanical make-up. Materials have been developed on such topics as gardening, canning, constructing a storage cellar, beekeeping, building a fishpond, setting fruit trees, making a hotbed, feeding a baby, planning a well-balanced meal, using sugar substitutes, caring for chickens, and raising strawberries. The materials, written for the various grade levels, appear in lithoprinted booklet form, and are illustrated.

Instructional materials of the kind prepared in connection with the Sloan Experiment fall in the second group described at the beginning of this section. They have been especially prepared for a group of communities having common problems and similar resources. An advantage of using materials of this type is that out of their use materials of the third type can easily be developed, and teachers and pupils are stimulated to use more frequently materials of the fourth type. Children and teachers who read about checking gullies on eroded hillsides become interested in checking the gullies in their own denuded schoolyard; improvement of the school environment becomes a demonstration to the community.

The pupils in one of the experimental schools had read about soybeans in *We Plan a Garden*. Pursuing the subject, the children used their information to prepare reading charts for the schoolroom. Then they applied their knowledge by planting in the school garden some vegetable-type soybeans, the first ever raised in the community. The growing vegetable was a material of instruction much more effective than the mental images evoked by words or pictures in books. The children took the mature soybeans home for their interested parents to use as seeds in the next year's gardens. Thus, instructional material prepared in the school served as a direct contribution to the resources of the community.

VII. HOW SHOULD TEACHERS BE PREPARED FOR TEACHING IN THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL?

The extension in practice of the ideas of community education, as discussed in this chapter, depends upon the introduction of new em-

phases into pre-service and in-service teacher-education programs.

In addition to knowing children and the subject matter to be taught, teachers of schools which emphasize community resources must know the interests and the customs of the people whom they serve, their problems, and how they make a living. They must know the organizations and methods of the other public services of the community. They must know how the problems of their patrons and the agencies of the community relate to problems and agencies elsewhere in the state, in the nation, and in the world. Above all they must know how to study a local community so as to identify its problems and resources.

Pre-service education for teachers should be re-evaluated in terms of its success in preparing persons to teach in community schools. In most cases it will appear that new emphasis will need to be placed upon information about social, economic, and political problems, processes, and situations. Intern experience will often need to be provided in communities of the type in which the internes expect to be employed.

Although new emphases at the preservice level will be helpful, they will not complete the teacher-education program; community schools themselves must maintain extensive programs of in-service education. Such programs can be of great benefit to thousands of experienced teachers throughout the United States who, though they love and understand children, continue to teach as they have taught for ten, fifteen, or twenty years. Many teachers who would like to continue their education while in service are prevented from doing so by distance from college, by lack of money, and by family responsibilities. These teachers can benefit from the services of local and state supervisors and the off-campus courses and workshops of teacher-education institutions.

Colleges and universities have an opportunity and an obligation to extend off-campus services to communities in their service areas. Teacher-education institutions are recognizing this opportunity and are offering a new type of field service to teachers at work. Teachers are enrolled in classes dealing with methods of community study. Classes are also organized for discussion and study of school problems growing out of the teachers' own work. Instructors and teachers together try to find solutions to these problems, which may relate to child behavior, to delinquency, to poor reading or spelling, or to the special needs of the dull or the superior child. Through these field services the teachers become familiar with new teaching methods and materials, with proper health standards, with the work of other agencies of the community, and with such supplementary tools of learning as

the radio, the motion picture, and the traveling art gallery. They are also given opportunity to observe successful teaching in community schools.

An example of how colleges can be of service to teachers is found in Kentucky, where the College of Education of the University of Kentucky holds summer work-conferences for teachers in their own counties. These off-campus conferences offer a number of special advantages. More teachers attend than could attend if the conferences were held on the University campus, because their transportation is greatly reduced, and their total expenses are less. Representatives of the various federal, state, and local agencies at work within the counties can visit the conferences and help the teachers plan their educational programs. In turn, these representatives learn of ways in which their agencies can help in solving local school problems. It is possible to use schools typical of those in the various counties as demonstration schools. In all cases, the development of plans for making school programs more practical is greatly helped because the resources observed and used are, in fact, *local resources*.

Finally, it will be noted that in this chapter the illustrations have been confined to rural and small urban communities. Although community education is more difficult to organize in a complex metropolitan area, the need for it is no less in large urban communities. The community-school emphasis has significance for postwar education in all communities.

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CHAPTER XI

NEW NATIONAL CONCEPTS IN DOMESTIC AFFAIRS

C. LESLIE CUSHMAN
Associate Superintendent
Philadelphia Public Schools
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
and

JOHN MASON
Editorial Assistant in Curriculum
Philadelphia Public Schools
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

In this chapter we are concerned with that portion of the educational program which is designed to give youth a feeling of belonging to the nation and to assist them as they begin to share in national privileges and responsibilities. The treatment relates particularly to the education of adolescents in junior and senior high schools. The point of view expressed throughout the chapter, however, is, we believe, one that might well be taken into account during the next few years in planning for the work of elementary schools and of the colleges also.

The educational process does not occur in a vacuum. It deals with pupils who come to school with particular predispositions caused by particular environing conditions, fortunate or unfortunate; and it attempts to move in the direction of definite, attainable goals. Hence, any educational program must at the outset take account of time, place, and circumstance. This is particularly true for education in regard to the domestic scene—that is, that part of the educational program designed particularly to induct youth into his culture.

Persons who are interested in the work of the schools partake to some degree in the general mood of their time. In some epoch they are likely to be blandly optimistic and to regard the existing state of things as a kind of *Q.E.D.* to the permanent problem of the ages. Under other circumstances they may feel that the time is out of joint and that, being born to set it right, they must formulate some specific remedy or set of remedies. Thus in any period of national emergency there are a large number of individual panaceas to cure “what is wrong,” and comparatively few thoroughgoing attempts to get at the roots of our ills.

In general, the more superficial his analysis of problems, the more ready a lay critic is to tell the schools what they should do. Some typical remedies for alleged deficiencies in social studies are: "Give more time to American history Teach the Constitution Teach the Bill of Rights Place more emphasis upon responsibilities Emphasize the fine features of our history" It is not asserted that these proposals are not in themselves commendable. It does seem true, however, that no one of them by itself is an answer. Persons who plead thus are likely to know little about the ways in which the attitudes and habits which make for good or bad citizenship are developed. They are unaware of the resistance of the mind of youth, particularly of American youth, to remembering what does not interest them. Moreover, they do not understand that memorizing lists of factual information unaccompanied by a program of activities to awaken and keep up interest plays a very limited part in determining present and future conduct.

Even if it were possible to secure a ready and practical acceptance and assimilation of any given informational program, we still have to examine critically the urgent demands of those who, having looked rather casually at the needs in the social studies, rush into print with an array of factual items which "youth ought to know," such as a sequence of historic events which grow irritatingly vague as pupils approach problems now awaiting decision, or an outline embodying the results of a hasty and too often slipshod analysis of existing conditions.

I. ECONOMIC PLANNING

It would obviously be impossible here to attempt any exhaustive analysis of social conditions in the present or immediate future. Rather we shall limit ourselves to two or three aspects of those conditions which have particular bearing upon the way in which we must plan youth's education regarding domestic affairs. The first of these is the economic situation in which we are likely to find ourselves in the years ahead. The curriculum-maker must be particularly concerned as to how the economic picture will look to youth. If youth sees an abundance of jobs, if it appears to him that with reasonable endeavor he can "make a go of things," the consequent outlook on life will have an important influence on the attempt of the schools to provide an adequate education regarding domestic affairs. Before dealing with this more fully let us mention a second characteristic that will have particular bearing on the matter of concern, namely, the role which society will tend to assign to youth. Will youth be an esteemed group in society, or will

the tendency be to relegate youth to a minor position? The answer to this question is of great import in planning for the future work of our schools.

Now returning to a consideration of the economic situation in American life during the years ahead, we see America as a nation in which at this particular juncture the controlling groups in government and economic life have no adequate plans for the demands of the coming years. The mistrust and fear of comprehensive planning evinced by certain influential individuals and groups is both amazing and disheartening. We also see America as a land in which the pressure for action to meet critical situations as they arise in the years to come will be very great. There has been a great increase in the amount of planning—wise and foolish—that has been put forward to satisfy our probable wants. A rough index of this increase can be had by comparing the number of articles on any phase of postwar planning that are being published in these years with the number published on the same subject during the corresponding years of the first World War. We see, therefore, the American economic scene in the years ahead as one of much confusion and perhaps frustration, but possessing resources which, if used to advantage, may make possible certain very real and far-reaching advances.

Carl Becker has stated, perhaps as well as anyone, the excuses people will find for letting up in efforts to improve our lot in the postwar years. In time of international struggle we are possessed by a sense of the imperative need to stick together. We are all "in the same boat," and a crew with well-established traditions of loyalty tends to stand by the ship. There have been unity and altruism enough to bring victory to the Allied cause, in spite of many incidental disturbances such as strikes, profiteering, increased racial tensions, and inequality in the sacrifices required of different individuals. When war is over we want to go back to our individual concerns. We desire to forget other countries; to go back to what President Harding not too felicitously characterized as "normalcy." Isolation and complacent intolerance tend to supplant the heroic mood of people in danger. The change from a war spirit to certain inhibitive aspects of the peace spirit is analyzed in Professor Becker's book, *How New Will the Better World Be?* There are manifest dangers in postwar worlds—dangers of which we as educators should be fully cognizant.

While Professor Becker's analysis relates to many phases of our future social life, it has particular implication for the conduct of economic affairs. It is difficult to see how any realist can believe that present plans for dealing with the changing conditions of the postwar

years, particularly economic conditions, are developing apace with the success of our armed forces.

But perhaps the situation can be painted too black. Several considerations suggest this possibility. (1) The memory of long years of tremendous unemployment is very fresh in most of our minds. (2) We have had a longer period of full employment and full production than we have ever previously known—a period in which our country has demonstrated its mechanical adaptiveness to new tasks. (3) We have more people who have wondered and thought about the possibility of full employment and plenty of goods being achieved through planning for ends other than war. (4) Some have been trained in the techniques of achieving these ends. (5) There is a recollection, one that is at least in part wholesome, of having made a mess of things after World War I. (6) The speed with which change in economic conditions will take place is likely to be so much more rapid than we have ever before known that we shall be compelled to act. One may take heart from the words of Lewis Mumford's introduction to *The Condition of Man* (1944): "Not once, but repeatedly in man's history, has an all-enveloping crisis provided the condition essential to a renewal of the personality and the community. In the darkness of the present day, that memory is also a promise"

It seems important to stress these conditions because of the great part that economic forces outside the school have in coloring the school experience of youth. If our pupils see the economic world as one barred against them, that is one thing; if they view it as open, that is another thing; and if they can view it as one in which we are unitedly trying to find means of full production and employment, we have something to which we can gear the education of adolescent youth.

We have been directing attention here to the general economic picture of the years ahead. The curriculum planner must, of course, give attention to the fact that as this scene unfolds it will not look the same to all youth. Every boy and girl will have a picture of life's opportunities that is different from that of all of his or her contemporaries. These differences will in part be due to biological diversity; in the main they will be the product of socio-economic differences. Whatever their cause, they constitute an important factor that must be reckoned with in the induction of youth into the culture.

II. THE STATUS OF YOUTH IN POSTWAR SOCIETY

The second feature of the American scene to which reference has previously been made is the role that society will give youth in the

years ahead. The educative value of the position young people occupy in America has tended to diminish throughout the shift from a rural economy with many individual family duties to an urban mechanized society. We see many reasons for believing that there will be a tendency to neglect the consideration of youth's needs, and thereby to make this role one of minor social significance. The fact that adolescents will constitute a less considerable percentage of the total population than in the past may tend to react against them. We grant that this should not be the case; indeed, the fact that they are fewer should make them more precious. But there is often a tendency for a decline in numbers to work the other way. American society is still in the process of discovering its older people—of realizing the significance of the increasing percentage of the population they represent, and the limited opportunities modern society offers them. The fact that the "oldsters" have the ballot is also much in their favor. The tremendous prestige that will adhere to being a "veteran" will have the effect of thrusting youth to one side. The probable scramble for jobs will work to the disadvantage of youth. All of these are in a very real sense continuations of social trends which have existed for many years—trends that have inclined to limit increasingly the educative influence upon the years of childhood and adolescence of living in community relations.

We have no way of determining the flexibility of this role that will be assigned youth in years ahead, or the extent to which the role can be expanded. But we are certain that many individuals and groups will be concerned about youth. This will be particularly true of those who are seeking to build—to build better homes, better medical services, better recreational facilities, more beautiful cities—for their efforts become relatively meaningless unless society does concern itself deeply with its future members.

III. CURRICULUM OBJECTIVES IN RELATION TO DOMESTIC AFFAIRS

These characteristics of the future American scene have great significance for the curriculum planner as he thinks about education for participation in domestic affairs. We think it reasonable to assume that constructive education in this field will be extremely difficult unless the school working with the community, or with certain elements of the community, can find a social role for youth that will make boys and girls feel they are wanted, and that they are contributing to effective social living. Their role should include some work opportunities for a wage, some opportunities for observation of the social scene, and some opportunities for community service.

1. Pupil Participation in Community Activities

In chapters vii and x detailed descriptions of opportunities for work experience and community service are given, together with a description of their educational significance. These chapters show how youth may be involved in community living, an involvement which is basic to all civic education, including the induction of young people into the responsibilities of national citizenship.

Schools must search out in their neighborhoods and in their communities those individuals and groups who are seeking to come to grips with vital community development. We refer to those who would improve housing, improve the facilities for recreation, improve educational facilities and offerings, improve family life, improve industrial opportunities and practices, improve health. Alliances must be formed with such persons to permit active participation of the rising generation in what they seek to accomplish. The manufacturer, the merchant, the union leader who truly is concerned that private enterprise should expand and flourish for the social good cannot escape a share of the responsibility for helping youth to become a partner in the world of affairs. The possibilities of co-operation of this sort in the education of youth are countless and many have been described in current reports. For example, the following account of an activity carried on in the general education class of Cherokee High School in Tulsa involved the co-operation of a young married couple in the community and the high-school students.

One interesting problem which the general education . . . classes tackled . . . was helping to plan the evolution of an old farm house in the community.

A young married couple bought a ten-acre farm in the community, a place that had been completely neglected for a number of years until it was extremely dilapidated. This house became a general education workshop for the students.

Students went to the farm in groups, studied the condition of the land, the orchard, etc. They also studied the old house. Some of the windows had no facings at all—only pieces of orange crates nailed here and there. The boys re-worked the house and improved the general state of the land and surrounding conditions. On a budget of \$200 the girls decorated the interior and furnished the house. The experience proved to be a very worth-while life experience and called for group co-operation in putting theory into practice.¹

The field of recreation represents another significant area in which youth can play an important role as suggested in the following reports.

¹ *Curriculum Study in the Tulsa Secondary Schools*, p. 89. Final Report of Eight-Year Study, prepared by Katherine Moran assisted by the Teachers and Administrators of the Secondary Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1940.

The high-school boys in Kalamazoo, Michigan, began their campaign for a recreation center of their own by gathering facts to prove their need. They checked court records of juvenile delinquency, teen-age patronage of bars. They surveyed youth programs in nearby towns. Then they took their problem to the Council of Social Agencies, and with its help were able to open a part-time canteen at the YWCA. This fell short of their needs, but they still boycotted adult-organized dances, held out for their own program. Finally, they were allowed to take over the city's dance-band contract, managed it well, and proved themselves capable of running their own show. Today, they have a center of their own, self-supported, self-governed, and highly popular.

* * * * *

In Cleveland, Ohio, the Board of Education, through its community center department, has recreation projects going on at 21 schools. Teen-agers go in for basket ball, boxing, dramatics, tap dancing, music, craft work, model building, and table games. Instruction is given in tennis, golf, bridge, personality development, millinery, and interior decoration.

* * * * *

Milwaukee's recreation is directed by the Department of Municipal Recreation and Adult Education, a division of the public schools. A state law places organization and financing in the hands of the school board but specifies that the money must be used for recreation exclusively. The law also provides the use of city-wide facilities—parks, school buildings, swimming pools, etc.—for this program.

The city program was started in 1911 and the activities are centered in sixty-two organized playgrounds and thirty-two buildings, all but four of which are schools. Eleven of the buildings are used chiefly for athletics and games; the rest are full-time social centers.

A corps of about fifty full-time recreation workers is maintained. Part-time workers are employed for special activities having from one to three sessions per week. The school principal heads the social center, with the aid of a full-time assistant to direct activities. Almost one thousand volunteers help with the program.

To watch one of the thirty-two neighborhood centers in action is to know a good deal about Milwaukee. On any evening there will be classes, meetings, lectures, hobby groups, and indoor sports going on simultaneously. Neighborhood dances and parties are held on week-ends.²

If schools secure the foregoing contacts, a foundation will be laid for the study of domestic affairs. Without such a foundation schools are pretty well defeated at the outset. In part this association must be direct—in part it must be vicarious—from reading, motion pictures,

² *A Report of Community Recreation for Young People*, pp. 1, 4, 28-30. Division of Recreation, Office of Community War Services, Federal Security Agency. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

radio, lectures, and so forth. If this approach is followed vigorously and with a reasonably clear concept of human values on the part of the teacher, the pupil will get an adequate perspective of the difficulties that stand in the way of human progress.

To this point the purpose has been to urge that schools accept unusual responsibility for helping youth to become active partners in social living. In no sense, however, should this be permitted to serve as a substitute for a thorough-going introduction, under school guidance, to study of American life and American culture—the study of the domestic scene.

2. The Program of Studies in Civic Education

One of the great weaknesses in the study of domestic affairs that to date has characterized school practice has been the attempt to include everything. The result is that the average student's ability at the completion of a course in history, government, American problems, and economics, is often limited to giving back to the instructor on examination a miscellaneous array of facts. True, in many cases the number of remembered facts is so small as to be disappointing both to teacher and pupil. But it is still more unfortunate that much of the information that is given back is so soon forgotten. This is to a very considerable degree because the facts temporarily acquired are unorganized and unrelated to the life of the pupil. Seldom do these facts serve as a guide to conduct.

It is obviously of the essence that in the postwar years civic education, the education of a youth with regard to his society, shall be a success. The men and the women of this country's armed forces have been participants in the most comprehensive program of education the nation has ever known. In the main, this program has been one in which the objectives set for it have in a large measure been achieved. Certainly in many particulars the program has been successful to a degree hitherto unknown in the American public school. It is time for the schools to clarify their objectives and to find means of achieving some of them to a comparable extent. In no particular area is this more to be desired than that which is the subject of this chapter.

3. Recognition of Fundamental Issues in American Life

As a first basic step in building a successful program of study regarding domestic life, it is urged that instruction to this end be built around a small and carefully chosen set of important and recurring social issues. These should be issues with which contemporary American society must deal. It is highly desirable that they be issues with

which American youth can in one way or another grapple at first hand. It would be well for them to be issues that are deeply rooted in America's past. The number of such issues used as the basis for instruction should be such that they could easily be recited from memory by teacher and pupil. Taken as a whole they should provide for youth, and also for the teacher, a comprehensive picture of the society to which we belong.

It is unlikely that there is any single pattern or sequence of courses through which a well-selected array of issues covering American life could most effectively be made meaningful to American youth. Some schools might find it highly advantageous to spread instruction in American history over two, three, or an even greater number of years, and to build into this instructional program the study of such issues. This could probably be done best by an organization that at times would be primarily historical in nature and at other times geographical, and so forth. Each of these would be organized to contribute to the understanding of the same issues and would be used because at that point it seemed to promise most. In no case should rearrangement entail the dispersal and dismemberment of instruction based on inter-related facts, or the abandonment of recognized headings under which pupils would look for reference material. Often library classifications seem unintelligible and awkward to a subject teacher. On the other hand, such classifications seem perfectly logical to a librarian. A teacher's accepted orientation of material often becomes the Law and Prophets to him—a "vested interest." New distributions are as annoying as the use of a blue cover for a text that has always been remembered as "the red social science book."

Some subjects, by their nature and quite apart from tradition and convention, "dissociate" less readily from their surrounding implications than others. Thus it may be desirable to retain, as undivided units receiving continuous study for part of a term, a fair amount of chronology, of geography, of connected narrative covering the most important historic movements, and of the pressing conditions and problems in the immediate present. Most other material is susceptible of multiple approach and may be handled according to the general needs of curriculum. In any event, the teacher with any conscience must be ready to relearn his subject at more frequent intervals than once in five years, and a change in orientation is no more difficult than any other variety of relearning.

On the other hand, schools might wish to continue to separate the study of American life into history, government, and the like. This

approach may succeed, but only if each of the courses in the sequence is taught so as to put greater emphasis on the same group of basic issues. This can be done only if the teachers of the social studies in a given school and, to a lesser degree, teachers of other subjects that contribute to social understanding are agreed among themselves on some choice of issues in American life which they will together seek to make meaningful to all students through all of their classes.

It is not here proposed that any one person or group of persons select for all schools one authoritative list of issues in American life to be studied by all schools. There would be little advantage in attempting to prove that such a procedure would be either desirable or undesirable, for under the administrative arrangements of American schools no such action could or would be taken by all or by a majority of schools.

It would undoubtedly be useful for schools to have one or more suggested arrangements of such issues prepared by eminent scholars. Few schools would, however, be likely to accept verbatim any single pronouncement. A more common practice in a majority of cases would be for schools to prepare lists of their own, as a result of careful study and with appropriate reference to lists prepared by scholars. Schools will sometimes in practice adopt material without very thorough study, but this is a perversion of freedom to organize their own material. In so far as the first of these alternatives was followed, the final selection by the individual school would probably be most desirable. That approach would tend to give to the teachers of the school concerned a feeling of having thought through for themselves what they were about, a feeling that would be conducive to good teaching. A made-to-order course of study needs alterations to fit the customer just as much as a made-to-order suit. Tailors and teachers need to know how to alter standard patterns; otherwise there are bound to be dreadful misfits.

With this brief introductory statement concerning the way in which the selection of basic issues might be made in American schools, we proceed to a listing of such issues as we think might well serve as focal centers for study in a school. Although we confess a certain fondness for these particular issues, we do not in any sense present them as a definitive or authoritative list, such as has previously been spoken of.

a. *The Issue of Integrating Local, National, and International Loyalties.* Basic to all other domestic issues, is the issue which is often put as nationalism versus internationalism. But the issue in reality is more than nationalism versus internationalism. It may be viewed as stateism versus nationalism. Or again, as the claim of local

community versus that of the state. With some, the issue is ward versus local community.

There can be no peace or progress as long as the issue is dealt with as one in which the small or the large should properly win out. The issue is rather, can the interests of the small unit and the interests of the large unit be reconciled and integrated so that each will enrich the other?³ Can the interests of the neighborhood be achieved in co-operation with other neighborhoods, through an integration of activity between neighborhood and city? Can such interests be co-ordinated between the communities and rural areas of a state and the state as a unit? Or again between the state and the nation? And finally, between the nation and other nations of the world?

David E. Lilienthal in his excellent volume, *T.V.A.: Democracy on the March*, has made a good case for a relationship between the local unit and the large comprehensive unit under which there will be centralized authority, but decentralized administration. Some will say that such a relationship could succeed only if human behavior were socially intelligent. Mr. Lilienthal would reply, and in this we concur, that this arrangement has succeeded significantly in the T.V.A. and in many other places, because some men and women have demonstrated the possibility of socially intelligent behavior.

In summary, we view as inescapable in contemporary American society the issue of how the small unit and the large unit shall work together. The issue seems to satisfy fully the criteria earlier proposed as a guide to the selection of what to include in the school curriculum. It would be our hope that as a result of the study of this issue, youth would free themselves from the common practice of debating the merits of small versus large social units, and instead would devote themselves to the search for a relationship under which the activities of one would enrich and be enriched by those of the other.

b. *The Issue of Finding a Unity That Will Permit and also Encompass Diversity.* This is an issue which should be examined with reference to many types of diversity—diversity of race, of religion, of national background, of vocational activity, of economic status, of special interest or talent, of belief, and perhaps of many other conditions.

This is an issue which needs to be examined in its historical perspective. Youth need to see both the common and the varied aspira-

³For an elaboration of the problem of loyalties, see Charles E. Merriam, *Civic Education in the United States*, chaps. iv-vii. Report of the Commission on Social Studies, Pt. VI. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1934.

tions which have characterized the settlement of America. They should be made aware of the way in which certain events in American life have tended to make us more alike as a people, of how these events have given us the elements of a common faith. But they should further be helped to understand those events which have had a divisive influence. Diversity which exists in fundamental unity may be a distinct advantage to the entire group. It may have an esthetic value, as giving variety to a pattern, or it may act *dynamically*, as supplying checks and balances. It is pernicious when it is allowed to become disruptive.

It would also be highly desirable to have this issue examined psychologically. Youth should be made to understand the ways in which individuals vary and at the same time the ways in which they have similar needs.

It would be difficult to think of any issue regarding domestic affairs which is likely to need more careful consideration in the days ahead than the one to which reference is here made.

As illustrative of current efforts to deal with this issue the following are cited:

In one large Michigan high school a serious race problem developed. One case of violence had occurred and tension was high. A committee of students prevented a strike against the minority group by securing permission of the principal to call an assembly meeting of the entire student body, without any teachers there, to discuss the race issue from the students' point of view. Four Negro students and four white students led off, followed by an open forum. The result of the session was a recommendation that the school organize a continuing committee or court to try to improve race relations in that school. This court has been sitting since that day trying the cases of students who have been accused of contributing to racial unrest in any way.⁴

Beginning with the idea of re-examining the old assumption that "A Negro simply cannot be educated," a group of high-school students in the Warlaw Junior High School in Columbia, South Carolina, began a study of Negroes. The class discussed the conditions under which the Negro lives. Then individuals and committees surveyed available materials about the poor health of Negroes, expenditure of money for Negro education, the Negro's voting privileges, etc. They took field trips to Negro living quarters. They interviewed parents and others on treatment given Negroes in court. They compared the expenditure of funds for the education of Negroes with that of the Whites. They visited Negro high schools, Y.M.C.A.'s, and settlement houses. Prominent Negro citizens were interviewed to learn their opinions on problems confronting their race. They studied contributions of outstanding Negroes. The

⁴ *Youth Learns to Assume Responsibility*, p. 81., Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan, No. 3. Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum. Lansing, Michigan: State Board of Education, 1944.

students drew many conclusions about many different areas of living in the life of the Negro.⁵

In the primary grades in Tennessee schools, the pupil has been guided in understanding the environment of his own home, school, and community. He is interested in other people, their mode of living, and their achievements. The majority have or will have frequent contacts with members of other races. Ten per cent of the total population of the state is Negro and the present trend is that of Negro migration toward urban centers. This study, "The Negro As Our Neighbor," was put into the Tennessee program because of the belief that the acquiring of knowledge and appreciation of other people is basic to intelligent race adjustments.⁶

[In a consolidated school some ten miles from Washington,] the theme for this year is "Community Living"; and in the social-studies class the pupils trace the growth of American communities from the colonial to the present, ending with a complete study of their own county (60 per cent of the school population being rural). As one result of this, the boys learned how much the desire for freedom led people to America. They made a list of things they considered important in their lives, the things they would not like to have taken away. By comparing this list with the reasons for founding new communities in America, they formulated for themselves the basic principles of American democracy.⁷

c *The Issue of Learning to Use All of the Resources of the Nation for the Well-being of All the People.* The idea that the physical resources of this continent belong to the people is very deep-rooted. It was an inadequate expression of that idea which often caused a careless opening of new frontiers. And a mistaken interpretation of the way in which the idea of public ownership should be protected has often been used by the exploiter to his personal advantage.

The future development of America is dependent upon clear thinking on this issue of the ownership and utilization of our national resources. During the war years we will have drawn so heavily upon certain of our resources—our iron ore and our timber, for example—that there will be widespread concern about a more intelligent use of what remains.

We also have to our credit many outstanding examples of the de-

⁵ *An American Answer to Intolerance*, p. 21., Teachers' Manual No. 1. W. Warren Barbour, George Gordon Battle, William Allen White, Co-Chairmen. Prepared by Frank Walser with the assistance of Annette Smith and Violet Edwards. New York: Council Against Intolerance in America (Lincoln Building), 1939.

⁶ *Looking Ahead with Tennessee Schools*, p. 55. The Tennessee Program for the Improvement of Instruction. Nashville, Tennessee: State Department of Education, 1937.

⁷ Dorothy L. Gottschall, "The Religious Aspects of Intercultural Education in a Public School," *Intercultural Education News*, III (June, 1942), 5-6.

velopment and use for the common good of certain resources—the lake front in Chicago, the great parkways in New York, the waters of the Tennessee River and its tributaries, the highways and bridges of the great Northwest, our national parks and forests, and a great many others which could be mentioned. A second set of illustrations could be given to show how certain of our resources have been developed under private or semiprivate ownership, but again for the common welfare. Further, it should be pointed out that an inadequate but significant beginning has been made in the conservation of our land resources. In chapter ix this issue is developed at greater length and teaching opportunities are outlined.

d. *The Issue of Developing a Working Relationship among Government, Management, and Labor.* No one is likely to question the assertion that this will be one of the most basic issues in the years ahead. It is again an issue which can scarcely be understood unless it is viewed in broad historical perspective. It is an issue which has been dealt with altogether too much by a thoughtless parroting of such vague and unmeaning slogans as “The less government the better.” The Wells High School in Chicago is an excellent illustration of a school which deals with this issue realistically.

Part-time and vacation jobs with industrial concerns are obtained for the students by the Wells Vocational Placement Office, and classroom recognition is granted for appropriate work experiences.

Learning experiences of the core curriculum include “Increasing our Employability,” “Harnessing Science for Work,” “Using Language for Work Needs,” “Writing for Business Needs,” “Employing Art in Industry,” and “Planning Our Careers.”

Surveys of student employment and vocational opportunity are made by students in the science classes, and in commerce by the commercial classes. Results help the vocational counselors to serve the part-time and vacation employment needs of industry. Wells has contributed to the city's war effort by supplying specialized workers such as laboratory technicians and draftsmen as well as clerical and factory workers.

Processes of manufacture and distribution to be observed in the district demonstrate scientific and economic principles which serve as a great practical resource for the program of study. Seeing the operation of these principles is a valuable educational experience. Field trips are feasible, frequent, and worth while. At a Wells Conference on employability in February, 1940, suggestions of industrial and business leaders were recorded as a guide to teachers in developing the employability of students.

Industrial leaders frequently speak in the high-school auditorium, or confer with students, parents, and teachers in curriculum committees. They explain what is expected of their employees in regard to technical knowledge,

attitudes, and skills. They make constructive practical suggestions regarding classroom procedures to meet these needs.⁸

Problems and services of labor are dealt with in our core curriculum under the phases of living, "Meeting Work Responsibilities" and "Developing Economic Competence." The role of labor unions in improving work conditions, in striving for adequate standards of living, in raising standards of public education, and in winning the war is considered throughout the four years of the curriculum. Present curriculum planning is giving considerable weight to organized labor's role in postwar adjustments. The students have profited from discussions led by prominent labor leaders in auditorium arts and in the Senior School of Leadership.

The Illinois Department of Labor has worked with the school in matters pertaining to the investigation of working conditions, federal age certificates, working permits, and hours of work standards. Many excursions to labor centers have been made and much printed material has been accumulated.⁹

Government agencies were perhaps the earliest source of community contacts made by our high school. Federal, state, and municipal governments all have offices within Wells' boundaries. Core-curriculum classes leaned heavily upon them in initiating and maintaining our classroom and library files of current educational materials. Almost as soon, our social-studies classes and student civic organization were assisting the government in carrying out safety, health, and relief measures.

The classes have helped and have been helped by the local ward government, the Police Department, the Fire Department, Block Organizations, etc. An English class, for example, demonstrated parliamentary procedures for a block meeting; and chemistry classes have demonstrated the extinguishing of fires of the types caused by bombs.¹⁰

e. The Issue of Maintaining Faith in America's Ability To Move Ahead. America's greatness has been the product of a faith that there are great things that can be done, supported by many demonstrations in particular instances that this faith can be achieved. An outstanding example of this greatness is the production record of these war years. In passing, it is worth noting that this has been made possible by a partnership of government, labor, and management, such as is referred to in the preceding section.

But there is an increasing tendency among many Americans to let this faith die, to conclude that we must accept things pretty much as they spontaneously develop. A striking example of this is the estimate by an association of real-estate dealers that 300,000 housing units per

⁸ *Ten Years of School-Community Action*, pp. 6-7. Chicago: Wells High School (936 N. Ashland Avenue), 1944. (Reprinted from the *Correlator*, Wells High School Yearbook.)

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 22-23.

year is all that can be built in the postwar years, although our need is several times greater than that. Perhaps a more disturbing example is the report of a study made in one of America's leading universities which showed that college seniors believed that the great discoveries in this country in fields such as chemistry, medicine, and the like were already matters of history. It is reported that the only discovery these students could think of in medicine that is still to be made is that of the cause of cancer.

It is important to note that we are not suggesting the study of this issue in terms just of obtaining more gadgets for the American people. Schools have no business to deal with such an issue unless they seek to guide students continuously to ask, "To what sort of faith in this country's capacity to build should we trust the future of America?"

These are in no sense a final list or even a complete list. They do represent issues we think of as being basic. Our major purpose, however, has been to illustrate rather than to catalog.

An illustration of the development of this faith in our ability to move ahead is given in the report of the work of the Holtville, Alabama, High School which appeared in *Life Magazine*, issue of January 13, 1941.

Holtville High School, the center of the community social structure and an important part of the community economic structure, is located about twenty-five miles from Montgomery, Alabama.

When it was found, for instance, that a fourth of the meat slaughtered in the county spoiled because of a lack of refrigeration, the high school set up a slaughtering and refrigeration plant. In 1940, students butchered and cured 50,000 pounds of local meat. When an expert declared that canning could add \$300 to the annual income of farm families, Holtville High set up a cannery.¹¹

IV. SUMMARY

Our purpose has been to suggest certain considerations which seem basic in planning that part of the school program which relates particularly to the adolescent's education regarding domestic affairs. The chapter began with the assertion that education for this purpose must be designed with particular reference to certain probable future trends in society. Two conditions that seem particularly pertinent were discussed briefly: (1) the economic state of affairs with its resultant note of hope or despair; and (2) the status that youth will have in the domestic scene. It was concluded that schools should accept a greatly increased responsibility for helping youth to share significantly and in

¹¹ "Democracy in United States Schools," *Life*, X (January 13, 1941), 68.

ways appropriate to their age-levels in the multiple affairs of society. The reason given for this was that the conditions which will characterize our society in the years ahead are likely to be such that youth unaided will tend to be pushed more and more to one side. Only if this tendency can be avoided or compensated for can an adequate foundation be laid for the more detailed formal study of domestic affairs.

It was then suggested that study should be centered around a small number of broad basic issues. Five specimen issues were indicated and briefly discussed. The reader will have noted the repeated suggestion that these issues should be dealt with in terms of broad historical perspective. We have expressed no preference as to how this should be done, through an extended course in American history that would include the study of government, sociology, and economics, or through a continuation of the common practice of offering specialized courses. The problem of developing all work in the social studies in such way as to contribute significantly to the understanding of a particular selection of basic issues was, however, suggested as a matter of major importance; and this involves the use of several modes of organization so that the student's ideas will not be confined to a single set mold.

Finally, we call attention to the point previously suggested—that these issues, indeed that the American culture, cannot be studied properly in isolation from the consideration of the history and affairs of other lands and peoples throughout the world. In conclusion, we are so bold as to suggest that perhaps American schools could contribute significantly to a clearer thinking about national and international relations if, for the majority of high-school youth, separate courses in United States, European, and World history were dropped in favor of a single extended course in American life.

CHAPTER XII

POSTWAR EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

HOWARD E. WILSON
Harvard University
Cambridge, Massachusetts

In chapter v it is stated that "the content and emphasis of the curriculum are and should be determined in part by the nature of the society which education serves." Application of this principle leads inevitably to consideration by educators of the fact of basic, world-wide interrelations among national segments of society in the twentieth century. In the midst of devastating world war, it is increasingly evident that peace can exist only on a global scale. Study of modern economy indicates that no nation can long live to itself alone, that reasonable and enduring prosperity must come for all of mankind or for none of it. The currents of industrial and scientific and humanitarian development flow strongly over and beyond all national boundaries.

I. FACTORS BASIC TO EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

The overwhelming evidence that, whether we like it or not, we live in "one world" need not be restated here. Pronouncements of leaders and committees representative of many educational groups attest our recognition of the fact; there is no lack of recognition in the educational press of world influences helping shape our society and ultimately our schools.¹ It is sufficient only to point out certain probable characteristics of the emerging social order for the purpose of clarifying the assumptions underlying educational planning. In the first place it should be stated again that internationalism in its present and near-future stages is predicated upon nationalism. There is to be no reduction in the political and to a certain degree the cultural entity of individual states. Education for world affairs does not assume that nations are to become all alike, any more than, within our own country, education for national welfare assumes that New England and southern

¹ Cf. *Education and the People's Peace*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1943

California are to become alike. The nations of the postwar world are not to sacrifice their inherent and diverse qualities and characteristics; the richness of world culture depends upon national diversities so long as they are harmonized in a greater whole. Just as regional variations enrich and strengthen the United States so long as these variations are held within the framework of the nation, so may the greater variations among nations enrich and strengthen the "one world" which exists in a cultural and economic if not in a political sense. There is no fundamental antagonism between what is said in this volume in support of education for a strong domestic economy within a finer nationalism and what is here said about education for a better world. The highest level of development for the United States over any considerable historical period is possible only as the merit of our domestic democracy is seen in its full relation to the whole of the society in which nations operate. It is because of this social fact that education for constructive participation in world affairs must be an integral and significant part of education for national citizenship in the postwar world.

A second factor, however, must immediately be considered. Education for international affairs is a phase of education for national citizenship, but education for national citizenship is also one phase of education in international relations. It seems to become increasingly clear as the decades pass that some sort of international organization and machinery are essential for the protection of both our national and our universal interests. The amount of social experience in and the number of proposals for an association of nations are now considerable, and support for international co-operation through channels established or to be established is now strong. It is by no means clear what form of international organization or machinery will emerge as political reality in the postwar years, but it seems quite certain that—if we are to avoid complete catastrophe—some continuing arrangement for conducting international affairs will come into existence. To that international machinery, national education has a certain allegiance. As the Universities Committee on Postwar International Problems suggests, it is the duty of education "to develop in individuals a sense of membership in the world community and a loyalty to the international organization, as the political institution representing the unity of mankind and serving the common interests of all peoples."² Education has a responsibility for acquainting citizens within the nation with the agencies for international action—their im-

² *Analysis, Education, and World Peace*, p. 15. Boston: Universities Committee on Postwar International Problems (40 Mt. Vernon Street), 1943.

portance, their characteristics, their functions, and their achievements and failures. Education must ultimately be held in part responsible for the intelligence of public reaction to this nation's participation in the established agencies of international action. The educational program must lift pupils' sights beyond the national boundaries and focus them on areas in which our own nationalism is limited by co-operative arrangements with other nationalisms.

It is not to be thought that education for constructive participation in world affairs, even in its concern with international associations, is to be limited to political matters. Factors which are antecedent to political co-operation among nations are of first educational importance. Such factors include the location and control and distribution of natural resources, the channels of trade, the flow of population over the earth's surface, the maintenance of human health, and cultural co-operation among professional, scholarly, recreational, and economic groups. Adequate education in international relations involves the whole range of educational content because international relations operate within the whole range of human life and welfare. What is said in this discussion deals not alone with civics or geography or the field of the social studies; its implications are for the humanities and the sciences as well as the social studies. Educational reform in this area deals with all phases of the curriculum and with school administration, extra-curricular school life, teaching aids, and teacher training. Adjustment of education to the dictates of world affairs involves a comprehensive program, permeating the entire work of educational agencies.

Certain other background aspects need to be considered. The war itself has brought or intensified numerous changes in education which may have effect in the postwar period. The pressing importance of wartime, day-by-day events has greatly increased the amount of attention given to current affairs in school programs; it is probable that, after the war, there will not be marked reduction in the time and emphasis allotted the study of current affairs. Such study is one vehicle for the adjustment of school instruction to the flow of world affairs, and is at the same time one means for articulating school and college education with the relatively informal agencies of adult education. Another wartime effect to be considered in planning postwar education is the recent intensification of our study of the national tradition. The attempt to formulate in clear educational terms the "American dream" or "the tradition of democracy," which has been strengthened by the war, is not merely a war phenomenon; it is one

phase of a longer attempt at interpreting the nation's story in terms of its underlying convictions and aspirations. This increased interest in "the meaning of America" may easily become an ethnocentric and reactionary force in postwar education—as it did in the years following World War I—or it may be a phase of the wider study of world relations; at any rate, increased emphasis on the history and culture and characteristics of the "American way of life" is likely to be a significant aspect of postwar education.

The acceleration of educational schedules which has characterized the war period may well leave its mark on education. While the accelerated program itself may not endure, the process of winnowing out grain from chaff in the curriculum which has been a by-product of acceleration may well continue. Changes in time allotments have jolted loose considerable chunks of curriculum content which were justified only by tradition and inertia. Some of the tradition is now broken. Of more importance is the sense of reality and focus which has been in much wartime education. The relation between education and its application, between "study" and "action" has been clearer, and the power of motivation more adequately unleashed. The search for realism will be accentuated in postwar education; it will certainly appear in greatly increased vocational focus in general education, but it will characterize nonvocational education also. Adjustment of the school curriculum to the needs of international living will be easier in coming years simply because international considerations are likely to loom very large in our analyses of social needs and problems.

One final matter should be stated in this introduction. Education for constructive participation in international affairs must not be approached in terms of sentimentality. Such education must be realistic and hard-headed as well as high-minded. The purpose of such education is the improvement of our own welfare as well as the welfare of others. The kind of school program which only develops friendliness—valuable as friendliness is—which stresses only good aspects of other cultures and glosses over hateful aspects, which emphasizes similarities among nations to the extent that differences among them are concealed, is not an enduring or safe program. Within the range of pupils' maturity, education for international co-operation must be realistic, open-eyed, farsighted. There must, of course, be a high-minded, ethical core in all of education, but to rest the hope of international co-operation on sentiment alone is only to prepare the way for disillusionment and trouble. There must be substance in our study of nations, of their methods of co-operation and their conflicts.

II. REORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM

Adjustment of the curriculum to rising interest in world affairs has proceeded rapidly during the war years and is likely to continue. In general, curriculum revision in this area—arising in recognition of the needs of pupils in the kind of world they must live in—may be carried on in three ways. First, there is the introduction of new courses on aspects of world affairs. In recent years, for example, courses on “The Pacific Rim” have been established in many western schools, and special courses on Latin America have been offered very widely. These separate courses, however, ordinarily are elective and reach only a few students; they can be afforded only in larger schools. A second method of curriculum alteration is the introduction of units or topics dealing with aspects of world affairs into already-established courses. For illustration, type studies of Oriental life may be introduced into the elementary-school course of study; units on “Our Foreign Policy” may be stressed in United States history courses. The introduction of new units or topics or areas of experience into the curriculum is a feasible procedure in almost all school programs. A third procedure is that of filtration of items about world affairs and nations other than our own into the traditional courses. Thus, there can be reference to Chinese families in the study of family life, to social-security measures of Mexico and Chile in the study of social legislation in the United States, to the translated literatures of other lands in our own English curriculum. If these cross-references can be widespread and systematic, they may well lead the pupil toward comprehension of the endless interrelations—the contacts and similarities and differences—in modern world economy. This filtration of materials into the curriculum may be only a superficial tinkering with traditional subject matter or, if systematically and adequately carried out, may involve a thorough revision of the curriculum.

These three procedures for adjustment of the curriculum should of course be based upon curriculum-makers’ deepest consideration of evolving society and of pupils’ abilities. Alteration in the curriculum without reference to basic social trends and individual needs is wasted effort. Considering social trends as they now seem to be operating, however, it is likely that the following areas of study are of major consequence to education if we are to equip citizens to share in the formation of public opinion about critical issues in the years ahead.

1. Recognition of World Influences in American Life

Each generation interprets for itself, at least in its major emphases, the life and tradition and trends of the nation. In this generation we

are engaged in invigorated analysis of the international setting and influences of American Life—a reinterpretation of relative influences on American development which has doubtless been accelerated by the war but is much more than a war phenomenon. The increased interest which scholars and publicists now have in the interconnections between American life and world life hold obvious implications for the school and college curriculum.

One of the most direct effects of this new viewpoint on American life in its world setting appears in courses in United States history. One obvious effect is increased emphasis in these courses at all grade levels on such topics as the development of our foreign policy and the role of the United States in world affairs. But the movement goes beyond these points of emphasis to involve reappraisal of general movements and forces in our history. For illustration, the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812 are likely to be studied in closer connection with the European conflicts and Napoleonic struggles with which they were related; the War between the States may be viewed, in one sense, as part of a larger world movement toward the establishment of nationalism. The new approach to national history should trace the relationship between the humanitarian movements of the 1840's which swept the United States and contemporary liberal movements in Europe. The early nineteenth century influence of trade with Asia should be traced in American art, dress, and home decoration. The African origins of Negro culture, the Indian relationships extending north and south through the hemisphere, the American contacts of Garibaldi, Sun Yat Sen, DeValera, and a host of others, the international emphases of the missionary movement, the rise of hundreds of international organizations in business, science, the professions, and the arts—all these are illustrative of the new emphases which the world situation calls for in the study of United States history.

Scholarly development of this new emphasis in American history should lead to similar emphasis in the history curriculum. The assumptions of isolation, the treatment of national affairs in a vacuum, can no longer be tolerated for those who tell pupils the story of the national past. A recent report on the teaching of American history indicates a trend in suggesting that "many aspects of our history can be fully understood only in the perspective of world history, and many of our problems cannot be solved without reference to other people." The Committee which prepared the report recommends "that American history should be so written and taught as to produce in the minds of the students a keen consciousness of the world beyond the United States. Our country has never been isolated; its contacts with other

peoples and countries are now more numerous and important than ever before.”³

The movement for the revision of American history in the light of wider horizons has its counterpart in other fields. Science, art, and music, as they now appear in school curriculums, transcend national boundary lines; themselves international in scope, they may be used systematically and consciously to acquaint pupils with the total world. World literature as a field of study—that is, the study of selections representative of varied world cultures—should be expanded in secondary-school offerings. International influences on the safeguarding of public health, the planning of nutrition programs, and the distribution of foods are of mounting interest in society and in schools. New interest in languages, even in languages which have not been studied in American schools and colleges, is one phase of our rising concern with world phenomena. Curriculum-planners in the near future are likely to increase and intensify the study of modern languages for selected groups of pupils; intensified language study by pupils especially interested and capable may call for considerable alteration in the customary school schedules.

The movement for reanalysis of the farflung factors moulding American life and for increased emphasis on the study of influences arising beyond the national borders is the first factor in adapting education to the wide horizons of the postwar world to which this chapter calls attention. It is a basic factor, pervasive and not easy to describe except by the actual accumulation of changes and insertions in a course of study. The educational task implied is vast, and cannot be discharged by the casual addition of a few new courses or new topics in the curriculum. It calls for detailed re-examination of what we are now teaching; it leads to reduction of the lag between research and teaching and to increased sensitivity of school programs to current international realities; it requires increased in-service education for teachers of the standard subject fields. It places upon individual teachers and upon the general architects of the curriculum the responsibility for reviewing and reweighing the point of view and the content details of their courses in the light both of current scholarship and of the applicability of their instruction to the international scene in which pupils must live.

³ Edgar B. Wesley (Chmn.), *American History in Schools and Colleges*, pp. 22, 119-20. Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies. New York: Macmillan Co., 1944.

2. Study of World Areas Formerly Neglected

The present war has brought forcibly to our attention that, as a people, we do not know very much about the peoples and cultures of certain areas of the world which have, and will continue to have, substantial influence on American life and policy. Study of these neglected areas is not a phase of the reinterpretation of American life in its world setting such as has just been described, but is an analysis of cultures indigenous to soils other than our own, having inherent individual qualities, and operating, along with the United States, to determine the course of the future. These cultures must be understood in their own right, without a patronizing bias, if public opinion is to help shape a wise course for American action in the vast current of world affairs. In addition to the major world areas now studied, four others should be emphasized in our school curriculum.

a. *The Study of Latin America.* For some fifty years past the thoughtful study of Latin American history and culture has been gaining ground in American colleges and universities. There has been gradual growth in the number of courses given, in the amount of research carried on, in the publication of monographs and books. World War I gave an impetus to such studies; the development of the Good Neighbor Policy and more recently World War II have increased interest in the area. World events and national policies have combined with rising specialized scholarship to effect a great wave of interest in instruction about Latin America at all school levels.

Some of the school and college developments in the study of Latin America are sentimental and naive, some are based on political exigencies approaching the level of propaganda, some are pedagogically unwise or illogical; but there is a strong foundation of sound achievement in the movement as a whole. For the years immediately ahead, the educational task is not the promotion of increased study of Latin America, but the evaluation of a movement already begun, the elimination of ineffective and unsound work, and the consolidation of gains. It is likely that there will continue to be—as there should be—more attention given Latin America in our school programs than there was before World War II; the task ahead is that of qualitative rather than only quantitative improvement in our study of Latin America.

As the movement for increased study of Latin American countries has developed, it has tended to emphasize the study of social customs and ways of living at the elementary-school level, of “nations as neighbors” at the junior high school level, and of elements of historical and geographical background in the senior high school. More recently there

has been effort to study current problems, trends, and regional inter-relations. Latin American materials of substantial character are finding their way into the humanities. There is now increasing attention to the problem of educating teachers for effective instruction in this area. All of these gains are significant. It is probable that school pupils in the United States today are somewhat better informed about the other American republics than any preceding generation in our history has been.

Yet, as has been suggested, many mistakes—some ludicrous and others almost tragic in their implications—have been made in the rapid extension of Latin American studies in the schools. In the immediate future the curriculum should be improved by less generalization about Latin America as a whole and more specific attention to different cultural groups and regions in Latin America. The present overemphasis on the exotic and picturesque, on the rural as contrasted with the urban, on the antiquarian as contrasted with the current aspects of Latin American life must be remedied. Pains must be taken, even more in courses in the arts and literature than in courses in the social studies, to avoid presenting atypical aspects of Latin American culture as presumably typical. There must be recognition of the close relation between education for intergroup co-operation within our national life and education for good hemispheric relations. Prejudices of race and religion are inimical to welfare within and beyond the national borders. A survey of the Latin American content of teaching materials used in United States schools and colleges, recently completed under the auspices of the American Council on Education, reviews many of the shortcomings in our present instruction about Latin America.⁴ Such suggestions for improvement as that survey presents are promising lines of experimentation for the years immediately ahead. But whatever the lines of development in schools of the United States, the objective is clear—there must be developed in young citizens of the United States deeper understanding and respect for neighbor nations to the south. The elements for building a school program leading to that respect and understanding are already at hand.

⁴ Arthur P. Whitaker, (Chmn., Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials on Inter-American Subjects), *Latin America in School and College Teaching Materials*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Part I presents the general findings and recommendations of the Committee; Part II describes the Latin American content in basic teaching materials of sixteen subject areas, with recommendations for improvement in each. The sixteen areas are United States history, general history, Latin American history, biography, foreign policy and international relations, modern problems, current events, geography, social theory, education, Spanish language, Portuguese language, general literature, arts and crafts, educational motion pictures, and music.

b. *The Study of Asiatic Countries.* The center of the world's population lies in Asia; among Asiatic peoples are ancient cultures from which the Occident has much to learn. The possession of critical natural resources has made southeast Asia and the adjacent islands a focus of imperial rivalries. In current years a renaissance in China, the war with Japan, stirrings of nationalism in India and the Philippines, the decay of the old imperialism, the technological bridging of the Pacific—all these make Asia a center of world influence, directly affecting the course of world, and of American, affairs.

The war has dramatized our interest in the Pacific and Asia's interest in us, and has demonstrated our general misinformation or lack of information about our Pacific neighbors. Events of the months since December, 1941, have amply demonstrated the value of the Asiatic studies which had been the specialties of a handful of scholars in American universities. We are today faced with a necessity, which will be emphasized in coming years, for creating a general understanding of significant Asiatic affairs on the part of all citizens. Such an understanding must be created as a guide to public opinion in shaping our "Asiatic policies," and as a foundation to support Asiatic studies as widely accepted fields of scholarly specialization. The present wave of interest in the diffusion of Asiatic studies at all school levels although it has not reached anything like the proportions of our interest in Latin American studies, is the beginning of a movement of high importance for the postwar curriculum.

General education about Asia is as yet in its infancy in this country. The Institute of Pacific Relations, the East and West Association, the Committee on Asiatic Studies of the American Council on Education, and a number of individual teachers or school systems have opened educational paths in this area of instruction.⁵ A beginning has been made, although major progress in this field remains for the years immediately ahead. A number of possible lines of development are readily apparent. The study of world history at all educational levels needs to be broadened beyond the traditional confines of history of the western world. It must present a more balanced picture of the rise of Oriental centers of culture and of the long-standing contacts of East

⁵ The Institute of Pacific Relations (1 East Fifty-fourth Street, New York 22, N. Y.) has sponsored a series of booklets on nations of Asia useful for schools. The East and West Association (40 East Forty-ninth Street, New York 17, N. Y.) publishes bibliographies and leaflets and maintains an active speakers' bureau. The Committee on Asiatic Studies of the American Council on Education (744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.) publishes a series of bulletins and, in cooperation with the Institute of Pacific Relations, has carried on a number of school and curriculum studies.

and West.⁶ The Asiatic contacts and connections of the United States need to be given more attention in the study of our national history. Immigration, trade, the movement of missionaries and of students, the official policies of governments—all these have bridged the Pacific and influenced our national life as well as the current of world affairs. Type studies of Asiatic peoples and cultures are appropriate for the intermediate grades; Asiatic elements are of consequence to instruction in literature and the arts. Extra-curriculum clubs may well deal with varied aspects of Asiatic cultures. In the upper years of the secondary school it seems imperative that pupils should study systematically and thoughtfully the contemporary issues of imperialism, as well as the machinery and focus of our own Asiatic policy. These are all lines of profitable experimentation for the adjustment of school programs to world realities on the Pacific front.⁷

The field of Asiatic studies illustrates a domestic relation of foreign-area studies which must not be ignored—the relation of education about Asiatics in Asia to education about Asiatics in the United States. The study of Asia is not merely an intellectual analysis of a culture geographically and socially remote; it involves education in human relations among differing groups on both the international and the national scenes; it reaches into the human and crucial problem of the relations of people with different backgrounds and physical characteristics. In our understanding of and attitude toward people of Asia, as of Latin America, lies part of our sensitivity toward intergroup relations at home. The study of these peoples must not be merely the acquisition of information; the emotional qualities of such study are of primary importance. Asiatic studies are not confined to the formal curriculum; “extra-curriculum” activities such as assemblies, pupil clubs, library exhibits, and forums may be made important agencies for developing understanding and respect for the Asiatic peoples. And the treatment of Asiatic minorities within a school population—the cultivation of understanding and respect in intergroup relations at home—has its influence on the wider reaches of international relations.

c. *The Study of the Soviet Union.* A third area of almost unlimited significance in world affairs, and one concerning which our educational program is thoroughly deficient, is that of the Soviet Union. We teach very little about the Soviet Union; it is almost fair to say that the

⁶ Derk Bodde's *China's Gifts to the West* (American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C., 1942) is an excellent aid to the teacher and student of world history.

⁷ See Howard E. Wilson, “Asia in the School Program,” *Educational Record*, XXIV (January, 1943), 14-23.

schools and colleges of the country have not yet altered the policy of nonrecognition which the government followed during the 1920's. Vast numbers of American pupils now go through high school, and even through college, without any systematic study whatever of the Soviet Union. More than that, where the Soviet Union is studied, the study is likely to be distorted in the "bottleneck" of Communism. The Communistic ideology has been—and still is—a stumbling block to the study of the people, the resources, the arts and sciences of the Soviet Union. Much of the small amount of school time devoted to study of the Soviet Union is spent in belaboring Communism rather than in analyzing a people and their land. This has been the situation in schools and colleges during the years in which propaganda against the Soviet Union has been rampant. As a result, the general concept of things Russian possessed by graduates of our schools is now characterized by considerable lack of information, considerable actual misinformation, and considerable prejudice. It is only recently that beginnings have been made to provide for study of the Soviet Union as divorced from propaganda either for or against it.

The Soviet Union occupies one-sixth of the earth's surface; one-tenth of the world's peoples are its citizens. It stands next to the United States in natural resources; its industrial development during the past quarter of a century has been inconceivably rapid; its record of production, of fighting, of morale in World War II has been deeply impressive. The Soviet Union is incontrovertibly one of the two or three major powers of the world. Whether we do or do not like it, the Soviet Union, as a sovereign power in the family of nations, now has and will continue to have profound effect on the welfare of the United States and of the rest of the world. Ignorance of the Soviet Union, not only as a government nor even alone as an economic ideology, but as a group of people with certain resources and achievements and failures and points of view, is not a safe foundation on which to develop American international policy. Our need for knowing about the Soviet Union, now and in the postwar period, is even more apparent than our present educational neglect of the country.

The curriculum arrangements by which increased study of the Soviet Union is to be provided are very much the same as those already suggested in connection with other area studies. Topical units may be introduced at various points in the social studies course of study—units on ways of living, on geography and history of the Soviet Union, on the Union's relations with other nations. Literature, art, and music are excellent media through which to widen understanding

of "the Russian mind." Science teaching has much to present on scientific advances and research in the Soviet Union. The study of current affairs must keep abreast of developments in modern Russia. Through avenues such as these there may come a widening of the base of public information upon which must be built the structure of American-Soviet relations in the future. The strength of this foundation is crucial to the future.⁸

d. *The Study of Canada.* Another area of the modern world in which American education should have especial interest and which has been grossly neglected in our school and college programs is Canada. Separated from United States territory by 5400 miles of unfortified boundary line, Canada is vast in territory and resources, small in population. Canada, a sovereign power, moves within the orbit of the British Commonwealth of Nations; Ottawa lies between Washington and London. Canadian and American people are alike in many aspects of thought, of experience, of outlook. They have many common elements of tradition. In economy they are relatively complementary; each tends to be the other's best customer, but there are likely to be many mutual problems of economic readjustment at the close of the war. Each country is essential to the other's system of defense; each is vulnerable through the other. The shortest air routes from the United States to either Asia or Europe lie across Canada.

There is every reason why the people of Canada and of the United States should be familiar with the entire continental economy and culture. More is known in Canada about the United States than is known in the United States about Canada, partly because its relations with the United States are those of a smaller to a larger power. In the early 1930's Hauck investigated what Canadian pupils were taught about the United States and what pupils in the United States were taught about Canada; he concluded that there was not adequate education on either side of the border for mutual respect and enduring good relations.⁹ In 1943 Gell surveyed education about Canada in the schools of the United States and re-emphasized Hauck's conclusion. He warned

⁸The scarcity of teaching materials about the Soviet Union has contributed to its neglect. Two items have appeared to which attention should be called—Marguerite Stewart's *Land of the Soviets* (Webster Publishing Company and Institute of Pacific Relations, 1943); and Dora A. Ames, Katrina B. Anderson, Eunice Johns, and others, *Meet the Soviet Russians*, a resource unit and reservoir of teaching activities published as No. 6 in the Harvard University Workshop Series, by the Harvard Graduate School of Education in 1944.

⁹Arthur A. Hauck, *Some Educational Factors Affecting the Relations between Canada and the United States*. Easton, Pennsylvania: Arthur A. Hauck, 1932.

against basing future good relations between the two countries on uninformed sentiment in favor of a peaceful border line and urged increased study of Canada as a sounder guarantee of enduring friendship.¹⁰

3. Co-ordination of Area Studies in a Revised Curriculum

It has been suggested in preceding pages that Latin American studies are being rapidly and extensively developed in our schools and colleges, that we have made a good beginning in Asiatic studies, that we are teaching very little about Canada, and that, at least by default, education about the Soviet Union is positively misleading. To single out these areas for specific mention does not mean that other areas are unimportant, but only that these are more important than we have customarily recognized and that their importance is likely to increase in the postwar period. Neither is the listing of these areas separately to be regarded as recommendation of separate school courses dealing with each area. Such courses, almost necessarily on an elective basis, are not adequate for the job of citizenship education which needs to be done. Separate courses, moreover, may easily fall into the hands of enthusiasts who overemphasize their area interests, become something like cultists, and foment a separation or area-isolation which is basically unsound.

These area studies need to be brought into balanced relationship within the general channel of the curriculum, a relationship based upon the status and potentiality of each area in the world as a whole. The importance of the several areas will vary as they are studied in different historical periods and within different subject or topic fields. Recognition of these areas can best be arranged through comparative studies of basic ways of living at the intermediate-grade levels and through units on culture-analysis in the junior high school years. It means strong revision of high-school courses in general history, in world literature, in art, in languages, in the sciences. Material about these neglected areas should be filtered into general courses, not to make them more compact and crowded, but to take the place of other topics and details of less significance than these. This dropping out of materials hallowed by tradition but of less actual importance is, practically speaking, the hardest part of the curriculum revision which lies ahead of us. All content items for social studies and the humanities should be revalued, and only those materials which have the

¹⁰ Kenneth Gell, *What American High-School Graduates Should Know about Canada*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Harvard Graduate School of Education. 1944.

greatest possible value in explaining the twentieth century to young America should be retained.

As has already been suggested, a balanced selection of materials about world affairs for study in general education calls not only for redress of emphasis upon different areas and cultures, but also reconsideration of the relative emphasis on historical and current materials. In social-studies programs we have perhaps tended to overemphasize a historical approach for its own sake. During the war there has been increased emphasis on current affairs; it is probable that this increased emphasis on recent times—which involves more attention to the social sciences other than history—will continue. Not that historical perspective will be ignored or lost, but that it will be more continually brought to focus on contemporary life. Certainly one field worth much experimentation in coming years is the more thoughtful and penetrating study of current trends in their historical and global perspective.

It is probable, too, that one part of the framework for balanced study of global affairs lies in substantial increase in the study of geography at the high-school level. The development of geography as a secondary-school field of study is a current movement due not alone to the war or to the interest in "aviation education." The study of world resources, their location, control, and distribution, is essential for understanding world affairs. We may anticipate widespread experimentation with geography courses for high schools. One of the most promising curriculum patterns, now in try-out stage in a number of schools and possibly worthy of general adoption in postwar years, calls for a two-year sequence in community and regional life and national history in Grades VI and VII, a two-year sequence in world geography and history for Grades IX and X, and a two-year sequence in American history and current trends in Grades XI and XII.

4. Study of the Techniques of International Action

One additional curriculum need arising out of the international situation should be mentioned. An adequate foundation for public opinion's share in the conduct of foreign policy involves not only respect for and understanding of other peoples, but also comprehension of the techniques of international action. The way governments do business with one another, the way treaties are made, the way the system of consular and diplomatic services operates, the way foreign policy is formulated—these are fit subjects for a citizen's study in an era when they affect momentarily the common welfare. Theories of "balance of power," of association of nations, of the relations of large

and small powers, of international law—these are part of the postwar milieu on which the citizen needs basic information.

It is probable that, within the framework of the social-studies curriculum, there will be increased attention to "international civics" during coming years. Such study is especially appropriate as a part of the twelfth-grade course in "modern problems." In history classes, also, it seems appropriate to give greater attention to postwar periods of reconstruction, with attention to the basic social, economic, and political issues involved. The work of our own Department of State—not only its formulated policies but also its method of operation—must become a matter of study in civics courses. In the study of biography more attention must be given our outstanding diplomats, both good and bad. Through study along these lines a sounder basis may be laid for public consideration of the conduct of foreign affairs.

III. THE "EXTRA-CURRICULUM" PROGRAM

The preceding discussion of the curriculum for international understanding has dealt primarily with content and organization because these are issues of greatest controversy at this time. It should be clear, however, that the curriculum in this field, as in other fields, must utilize a variety of experiences in order to attain the desired objectives. Communication of knowledge is not enough to insure world peace; there must be development of attitudes and feeling, as well. The aim of friendly international relations is not likely to be attained unless children grow up with feelings of friendliness and good will toward other peoples. Where a community includes several ethnic groups, the community-school program itself can provide intimate association directed toward community service that can easily be extended to serve as a part of the means of education for international understanding.

In general the curriculum revisions that have been proposed in the preceding section must be paralleled by appropriate changes in the total school program. Certain of these changes may be suggested under the heading of "extra-curriculum" activities, recognizing that these activities should be as carefully and systematically fostered by the school as are curriculum changes. There should be the closest correlation between many of these activities and the formal curriculum itself. Certain of the activities likewise merge into the programs of adult education which are likely to be increasingly extensive and effective in coming years.

Reference has already been made to the increased attention to cur-

rent affairs which has developed in the war years. While some of this attention is classroom instruction, much of it is carried on by forums, current-events clubs, assembly programs, and the like. Forums, especially those arranged on a school-neighborhood basis in which both adults and high-school pupils participate, seem especially promising as agencies for general education about current issues both domestic and international. The Junior Town Meeting of the Air now under development in various sections of the country seems likely to expand its operations in postwar years. Special interest clubs such as Spanish clubs, French clubs, Canadian clubs, etc., may well provide opportunity for selected pupils to acquire deeper understanding of such areas of world importance as have already been discussed.

One of the most significant developments of education in the armed forces which has pertinence to school instruction is use of a wide variety of visual and auditory aids. The resources available for the Army and Navy in recent years have enabled them to develop instructional tools and to experiment with their use on an unprecedented scale. There is every likelihood that, in the postwar years, these aids to teaching will be used increasingly in regular school instruction. Motion pictures, recordings, exhibits, and museum materials are especially useful in such area studies as have been suggested above; on an extra-curriculum basis in the schools they may be a strong support for the curriculum itself and at the same time a link between formal and informal, between school and adult education.

The war years have seen produced here and abroad pictorial introductions to a people and their culture. The Canadian Film Board, for example, has produced a series of unparalleled documentary films on Canada which are the best available tools of instruction for pupils in this country to gain an understanding of our neighbor to the north. The American Council on Education, acting for the Office of Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs, has produced a series of film strips on "Life in the United States" which are now used in the instructional programs of many educational agencies south of the Rio Grande. Kodachrome slides about Latin American countries are now being assembled by the same agency for use in the schools of the United States. Both the Army and Navy have produced training films for men going into overseas duty which may well be released for school use in the postwar period. And Hollywood itself—as in the work of Frank Capra and Walt Disney—has become increasingly sensitive to the educational significance of films for or about other lands.

Not only in films but in poster displays and special exhibits have the schools—and especially those interested in education for inter-

national relations—much to learn. Exhibits which approach the level of good advertising in their power to attract attention and which approach the level of textbooks in their effective presentation of significant information, are likely to be used increasingly by schools. They should appear on classroom bulletin boards, in school corridors, libraries, and assembly halls. Their wise use may increase tremendously the impact of the school on pupils. Their very vividness makes them useful as instruments for developing understanding and respect for “foreign” peoples and different cultures.

By such exhibits, by assembly programs, club exercises, forums and all the other vital elements of “school living,” the school of the immediate future is likely to be called upon to develop its program of education about world peoples and world affairs.

IV. TEACHER-EDUCATION IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Obviously, an effective program of education on international affairs depends upon widely informed and sensitive teachers. Liberal education at the college level is already beginning to widen its horizons; special work on Latin America, Asia, the Soviet Union, Canada, the British Commonwealth, and the European nations, as well as study of world geography, of trade and economics, and of international relations is increasing steadily and rapidly. In a few years it will be a part of the preservice education of the teaching staff. But even then—and certainly now—a great deal of continuing education in world affairs is essential as a part of the in-service education of school people. Indeed, the need for widened horizons and new viewpoints in this area is one major cause for the present rising importance of in-service education. Extension courses, forums, discussion groups, and all the other established channels of in-service education need to deal more adequately with “content background” on world affairs; professional leadership and supervision need to provide aid in translating this background into educational applications.

One factor of consequence in the education of teachers about world affairs is the contribution of veterans who return from the war to faculty positions. It is probable that the armed forces have not greatly widened, by systematic education, the understanding of foreign affairs held by servicemen. However, actual experience in other areas of the world on the part of many returned teachers (as well as parents of school pupils) is a factor of considerable significance. In some ways foreign service on the part of most officers and men is a widely educative experience; on the other hand, the situation at the close of World War I seems to indicate that experience in a foreign area during a war

period, and especially when there is no adequate and realistic educational background about the area, does not create deep understanding. War experience in a foreign area may, for many returned teachers, create blind spots and prejudices in greater degree than it creates understanding. Immediate personal experiences will need to be placed in a larger setting and to be viewed in balanced perspective. Teachers who have returned from war service abroad have much to contribute to a realistic school program about world affairs, but it is probable that they will need, quite as much as do other teachers, substantial in-service training as a means of utilizing and placing in perspective their own war experiences.

The postwar period is likely to bring an especially fruitful contribution to the education of teachers in increased contact with foreign students and teachers. It is probable that one phase of rehabilitation and systematic cultural relations among nations will be a vastly increased exchange of students, teachers, and other professional workers. Most prospective teachers going through college and professional school in the years immediately ahead are likely to have rather wide personal contacts with nationals from other countries all over the globe who share scholarly and professional interests with our own teaching group. The influx of students from Latin America, China, and the Soviet Union has already begun, and the great tide is yet to come. Professional and governmental control over the visiting nationals is likely to prevent unfortunate or antagonistic contacts and to encourage the kind of contacts which will be most helpful to teachers. And at the same time that others are coming to the United States for study, it is probable that greatly increased numbers of United States students will go abroad. The students who go are likely to be older, professional workers—among them teachers. In this widened reach of professional and cultural experience lies very great profit for the education of teachers in other cultures, in world affairs, and in the relation of education itself to national policy.

V. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN EDUCATION ITSELF

From what has just been said it is apparent that international relations will be an increasingly important interest within the profession of education itself. For educators to teach about international relations as something remote from themselves and their profession is somewhat ludicrous; the same factors of modern life which have carried art, science, and industrial operations over national boundary lines also carry education onto a world stage.

In schools of education it is probable that more attention will be given in the future to study and research in the field of comparative education—not merely such descriptive accounts of school structures in other lands as, ineptly taught, have bored prospective teachers in the past, but study of ways of teaching, of organizing courses, of running schools in other lands. Education of the physically handicapped as carried on in Uruguay, health education in some of the schools of the Soviet Union, methods of teaching languages in France, civic education or industrial education in various other countries—these are likely to be increasingly important areas of study. There is at present an extreme paucity of materials on the educational practices and theories of the Latin American states; no adequate literature exists in the United States on educational ideas in Asia. Research in these fields is a needed and is a coming phase of the professional study of education in these countries.

To facilitate these studies and to probe into educational movements and problems that transcend national boundary lines, it seems likely that some form of international office of education will be established in the general postwar settlements. While immediate attention by the governments of the United Nations is necessarily focused on problems of physical rehabilitation of educational resources in devastated and conquered countries, there seems to be strong support from many quarters for the ultimate establishment of an official international agency of education. In this country such an agency has been strongly endorsed by the Educational Policies Commission,¹¹ by the Liaison Committee for International Education,¹² by the United States Committee on Educational Reconstruction, by the American Association for an International Office of Education, and by the Committee on International Education and Cultural Relations of the American Council on Education. An excellent summary of the proposals concerning such an international office is to be found in a document prepared for the American Council's Committee by Walter Kotschnig and published in the *Educational Record*.¹³

¹¹ *Education and the People's Peace*, op. cit.

¹² Originally organized by Dean Grayson Kefauver, the Committee is now under the chairmanship of William G. Carr. It has sponsored the International Education Assembly which met at Harper's Ferry in 1943 and at Hood College in 1944. Publications emanating from both these meetings as well as a periodic newsletter on international education activities are issued by the Committee.

¹³ Walter M. Kotschnig, "Toward an IOECD: Some Major Issues Involved," *Educational Record*, XXV (July, 1944), 259-87.

However, it is not likely or desirable that all international educational activities should be channeled through a single governmental agency. Desirable as an international office of education supported by funds from governments and partially responsible to the various governmental departments of foreign affairs is, a heavy responsibility for international co-operation must be assumed by professional, nongovernmental agencies. Such activities must be in part supported by public funds, but professional freedom of action is essential. Bilateral and multilateral agreements among professional educational associations in various nations need to be stimulated; co-operative educational enterprises among nations need to be encouraged.

One bilateral activity has recently been launched which is illustrative of nongovernmental enterprises in this field. With the aid of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the American Council on Education, the Canada and Newfoundland Education Association, the Canadian Teachers' Federation, and the National Conference of Canadian Universities have jointly established a Canada-United States Committee on Education.¹⁴ The Committee plans a comprehensive study of what is taught about Canada in the United States and what is taught about the United States in Canada. It looks forward to facilitating study of each nation by teachers of the other nation and to establishing a system of exchange of teachers. Of even greater importance, the Committee serves as a channel of communication between the educational bodies of the two nations.

It is through such actual international co-operation that, in the end, professional education can be in accord with the basic needs of the postwar period. Education about world affairs for all citizens who go through the schools and colleges of the United States, full study and support of official agencies for intergovernmental co-operation in the field of education, and fruitful co-operation directly between educational leaders, organizations, and institutions of different countries—these three are basic to education of and for the future. They constitute essential planks in the platform of education for constructive participation in world affairs.

¹⁴ The Committee consists of nine representatives from each country. Co-chairmen are J. B. Edmonson, Dean, School of Education, University of Michigan, and Fletcher Peacock, Director of Education, Province of New Brunswick; co-secretaries are Charles E. Phillips, Professor of the History of Education, Ontario College of Education, and Howard E. Wilson, Associate Professor of Education, Harvard University.

SECTION IV

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE POSTWAR PERIOD

CHAPTER XIII

PRACTICE IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

PRUDENCE CUTRIGHT
Assistant Superintendent
Minneapolis Public Schools
Minneapolis, Minnesota

I. THE NEED FOR CURRICULUM PLANNING

Curriculum planning is not new in American schools, but there is need for improvement, both in the method of carrying out such activities and in the end results. The prewar period witnessed considerable activity in curriculum overhauling. Many a village, city, county, and state school system had its "curriculum committee." The faculties of many schools spent long hours in considering community needs, listing the concerns and problems of children, and in outlining objectives of education as well as in revising courses of study in selected subject areas. In some quarters this kind of professional activity resulted in a definite curriculum plan which was both accepted and understood by the teachers who were supposed to put it into operation. Where such accepted plans were based on a sound philosophy of education, focused on valid objectives and utilized knowledge of the learning process they usually led to real improvements—improved teaching techniques, the elimination of useless overlapping and nonessential activities, and the selection of new, vital, and truly educational experiences and content which were much needed by the children. In other localities, flurries of curriculum planning were either never quite carried through to any kind of successful completion or were treated in a superficial fashion which dissipated the teachers' energy and patience with the end result that there was increased confusion regarding what the school ought and ought not to teach.

The war has made serious impact on the curriculum of the schools, as it has on every phase of American life. There is scarcely a school that has not made some curricular adjustments during the war period, some of them desirable and of enduring value, others of questionable value and of a temporary nature. Most of these wartime adjustments

have been superimposed on an already overloaded program, thus adding to a confused pattern.

The demand for curriculum changes will be even more insistent in the postwar period. Peace will no more bring a return to the "old days" in the educational world than it will in the social and economic world. We must begin now to evaluate our educational programs. The times call as never before for educators who will think beyond the "shifting and patching" of courses, and the juggling of the school curriculum by adding and subtracting topics. Curriculum planning for the postwar period calls for a type of educational engineering which will "penetrate deeply, which will face new responsibilities with vigor and fresh resolution," and which will release and use the best talent and ability available.

How far a school can go in rebuilding its curriculum and how well it can reconstruct its program to meet postwar needs depends upon the abilities and judgment of the school leaders, teachers, and lay leaders in individual communities. Organization and leadership are necessary if these talents and abilities are to be released and used wisely. Certainly this leadership in providing an organization for curriculum planning and development must come from school personnel. Because of the earlier work in curriculum planning, however faulty it may have been in some localities, school leaders are in a better position to exercise such leadership and to organize for wise, reasoned curriculum development than ever before.

II. CURRICULUM PROGRAMS OF PROMISE

Successful curriculum planning is a complicated task. It has as its major purpose the improvement of human living through the educational process. It calls for a high order of talent on the part of those who guide the process—an understanding of the social and economic needs of the community and of the larger national and world scene, an intimate acquaintance with the findings of educational psychology on child growth and development and on how learning takes place, and a knowledge of the content and materials of instruction plus the creative genius necessary to stimulate, organize, and call into play the abilities and the enterprise of the school personnel in making plans and carrying them through.

There is no one plan or pattern of curriculum development which will ensure success. While each school system must relate and gear its plan to the needs and resources of the particular locality, still there are certain characteristics which seem to be common to successful pro-

grams. An examination of the various phases of a promising state program and the beginnings of what seems to be an excellent city program may serve to show these common practices.

1. State Program

a. An In-service Training Program Serves to Initiate Curriculum Study. The department of education in one of our southern states has for a period of about eight years sponsored, aided, and encouraged a broad program of curriculum development which has reached into the majority of school units in the state. The department through its division of instruction has been advised and aided by a representative steering committee which includes teachers, school administrators, curriculum experts, subject-matter specialists, representatives of the Parent-Teacher Associations, and other lay leaders. In stepping this program forward the department has used all the activities usually associated with a good in-service training program for teachers, with the addition of one or two not-so-common techniques—conferences, workshops, bulletins, press releases, and radio-conducted teacher forums and teacher meetings. This emphasis on in-service training for teachers has invited county, village, and city units to assume the responsibility for leadership in curriculum study.

b. The Program Uses Local Leadership and Expert Advice. Perhaps the most common plan for carrying forward curriculum study in county units is as follows: The general leadership is supplied by either the county supervisor of instruction or the county superintendent of education, with a representative county council, a curriculum consultant, and sometimes one or more special advisors from teacher-training institutions. Usually the council and subcommittees hold monthly meetings. A portion of each meeting is devoted to the discussion of matters of curriculum problems of general interest, and this is followed by group meetings on problems of special interest.

c. Provision Is Made for Wide Participation by Teachers. Each school in a county or in a city unit co-ordinates its curriculum program as far as possible with the plan of the larger unit—the county or the city. Work in individual schools depends on the initiative of the school principal and the leadership which he can bring to the task. In those counties and cities where there is a supervisor of instruction (about one-half the counties have supervisors), he works with the school principal, individual teachers, and groups of teachers on the curriculum problems which seem most vital to them. He serves in various capacities in connection with meetings of the curriculum council—as an aid

in arranging meetings, in collecting data needed by the council, in holding conferences, in maintaining the interest and *esprit de corps* of teachers and administrators of local school units.

d. *Development of Basic Principles and Understandings Precedes Course-of-Study Writing.* Most of the county and city units have devoted approximately four years to developing an understanding of the educational process, studying community and child needs, and to exploring teaching content and materials. There has been only such experimentation in reshaping the curriculum and revamping teaching methods as was needed and which the teachers recognized as desirable. Thus when the time comes for reconstructing the curriculum and for writing courses of study and guides to instruction, there will be a general understanding and appreciation of the ends to be sought through education as well as the means of achieving them.

e. *Curriculum Plan Includes a Study of Community Needs and Resources.* A teacher has described how the school personnel of a strictly rural county unit of some five thousand low-income families, 90 per cent of whom were engaged in agriculture, went about their work in curriculum development. In this county there were about 4,200 children in elementary schools, and 1,400 in junior and senior high schools. The teachers organized in study groups to consider how the school might aid in creating better living conditions in the community. For two years they studied and planned their program. They explored the needs and resources of their community and considered how these might be utilized by the school program. They met with the heads of the various county agencies and discussed plans with them.

One particularly effective activity was the study of service agencies and how they served to improve community living. At the teachers' request a supervisor interviewed the heads of the various agencies and developed a report which listed the purposes and services of each organization. A copy of this bulletin was furnished each teacher and the representative of each agency. The preface of the bulletin contained a statement explaining the use which the teachers hoped to make of the material—"We believe that there should be a closer relationship between the schools, the county agencies, and the home. By giving the children a thorough knowledge of the aims and purposes of the agencies working in co-operation with the schools, we should be able to do a great deal toward improving living in the county."¹

A summary of the services outlined by three agencies are quoted

¹ Irene Crawford, "The Role of the School in Planning for County Improvement," *Curriculum Journal*, XIV (January, 1943), 31-32.

here because they serve to illustrate the ways in which representatives of the agencies believed their work was related to the school's program to improve community living.

Lawrence County Extension Service: emphasize foods we need daily; supply the above needs; supply feed for farm animals; work toward soil improvement and land use; stress food required for work stock; increase cash income; adjust production to meet national needs; emphasize home improvement; make a community organization accessible to every family; and put a 4-H Club in reach of every farm boy and girl.

Farm Security Administration: promote live-at-home program; stress efficient land use and conservation; emphasize cash farm operation; extend co-operatives; improve financial status; and improve health and sanitation.

Health Department: install standard sanitary toilets for every home; make every home mosquito proofed; install approved water supply in every home; urge a balanced diet for every family; hospitalize all active cases of pulmonary tuberculosis; set up a long-range malaria-control program; control venereal diseases; and control communicable diseases.²

At the beginning of the third year they were ready to put their program into operation. The general outline of their plan included among other things a plan for school and community study of co-operatives, an improved and functional science program, as well as close co-operation with service agencies of the county in all school activities.

This program was distinctly community centered, and highly functional. All the teachers had a part in the program; they helped to plan it; they believed in its purpose; and they had a clear understanding of what the school sought to accomplish through education.

2. City Program

*a. Elementary-school Teachers in a Large School System Engage in a Study of Curriculum Needs, Using All Available Sources of Knowledge.*³ Four years ago the superintendent of a large city school system, with the help of a curriculum consultant from outside the school system and a curriculum council, outlined a long-term and continuous program of curriculum development.

One of the first activities initiated by the curriculum council was a study of the school system's needs in curriculum development. All the elementary-school teachers of the city participated in this study. Each school chose one of several proposed ways for discovering needs

² *Ibid.*

³ *Your Schools and Curriculum.* Newark, New Jersey: Newark Board of Education, 1941.

and was free to develop its own organization, techniques, and procedures for carrying out the plan selected. A wide range of sources of information was covered thoroughly. At the close of the first year of the study, fifty-nine schools submitted reports. These reports, when grouped, were distributed as follows:

A study of children's nature, needs, and interests—25 reports

A study of community needs—12 reports

An evaluation of a unified curriculum, based on Mort-Cornell, "Guide for Self-Appraisal of School Systems"—9 reports

A study of curriculum needs of the city, using criteria developed in connection with the survey of the public schools of Pittsburgh—9 reports

An evaluation of the city's need for a unified program in terms of "The Purposes of Education in American Democracy"—4 reports

The reports revealed that whatever the method used, the teachers of the various schools had made a careful, thoughtful, and searching investigation before formulating conclusions and recommendations. Therefore, each report offered pertinent and practical suggestions on ways of improving the curriculum of the school system.

The curriculum committee extracted from these reports materials which proved of great value in outlining the school system's attitude on the following major titles: (1) Role of the School in American Life; (2) Nature of Education and Learning; (3) Planning and Organizing Pupil Experiences for Democratic Living; (4) Selecting and Guiding Experiences for Optimum Pupil Growth; (5) Organizing the School and Classroom for Instruction; (6) Providing Physical Facilities and Instructional Materials; (7) Providing Service Facilities; and (8) Means of Promoting Teacher Growth.

Following the period of study in which an over-all picture of needs was drawn and a point of view and purposes were formulated, certain basic considerations for curriculum organization were drawn up, namely:

The total teaching staff should arrive at a general agreement as to broad areas of experience for all children, and each school should be responsible for providing them in its program.

Each school should have the responsibility and freedom for developing a program which is in accordance with the general organization of the curriculum but adapted to the particular needs of the individual school.

The individual teacher should assume responsibility and have freedom in adjusting plans to meet the merging needs of the particular school environment and of the children under her guidance.

Committees are now developing the framework of the curriculum. Later, teaching units will be developed to guide teachers in a program of education directed at the optimum development of boys and girls.

III. CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD CURRICULUM PROGRAMS

The activities described in the brief presentation of a state and a city curriculum program are characteristic of countless other programs of promise. It is reasonable to conclude that while different localities may differ considerably in the details of their scheme for promoting and carrying on curriculum study and planning, still certain major features are common to all. As an example, all thorough and comprehensive programs of curriculum development:

1) *Draw on all available sources of knowledge regarding social values, needs, and problems; the nature of learners; and the best subject matter or content.* It was pointed out in chapter v that the basis of the educational process, and therefore the foundation of any curriculum, lies in the relationship and balanced consideration of three fundamental types of information: (1) studies of the values, needs, and problems of society—both current and permanent, (2) studies of learners and the learning process, and (3) studies of content and subject matter appropriate to the accepted objectives. To overlook or neglect any one of these important factors would be to invite confusion and ineffectiveness in the curriculum finally developed. Few school systems have either the resources or the personnel to make adequate and original studies in any one of these three fields. Therefore, curriculum workers must rely largely on helps to be gained from educational literature and from the advice of experts.

By means of suggestions and a bibliography, chapter v gives valuable help to those who wish to review studies of all three types. Other chapters of the yearbook give information on social needs in the particular field discussed. As an example, the chapter on health calls our attention to physical defects found in army draftees, and the loss of manpower due to preventable illness.

These are social needs in the field of health with which the curriculum worker must be familiar. The chapter translates these needs into objectives or goals which the school should seek to accomplish through its instructional program. Also, the chapter suggests experiences which will aid the learner in reaching the accepted goals. Curriculum committees must have access to such information if the curriculum plan is to be anchored on a sound educational basis.

2) *Provide for wide participation on the part of teachers.* The

educational progress which is the goal of all curriculum planning is achieved by improved teaching and in no other way. In the last analysis it is the classroom teacher who determines the quality of the educational experiences which comprise the school's curriculum. In her day-by-day work with the children under her guidance it is she who decides what activities are appropriate for the pupils, and it is she who stimulates, guides, and evaluates their work. It is her information on social values, needs, and problems; her understanding of educational aims and objectives; her knowledge of children and how learning takes place; her familiarity with resources of the school and the community for providing worth-while experiences, as well as her skill in teaching which determine the curriculum. Impressive bulletins on educational aims and procedures may be furnished the teacher and she may sincerely try to "go through the motions" suggested in these publications, but without insight and understanding as to their true meaning and importance the result will be a lifeless, spiritless thing. It is imperative, therefore, that any plan to improve the curriculum recognize the strategic importance of the teacher and the necessity of increasing her understanding of better educational procedures if there is to be any real improvement in the school program.

That teachers value such participation is shown in a study made by the North Central Association. A subcommittee on in-service education requested the teachers of two hundred forty-seven schools to indicate which of thirty curriculum-development activities were most frequently used in their schools, and also which of these activities they found most helpful. The study showed clearly that while such principal-initiated-and-dominated activities as "the principal holds individual conferences with teachers," "current educational periodicals made available to staff," "principal holds group conferences with teachers," and "the principal issues bulletins suggesting readings," were ranked first in frequency, still it was those activities in which the teachers help to plan and carry through improvements in the instructional program which were ranked first in helpfulness.⁴

3) *Make in-service training an integral part of the curriculum development program.* At times there are objections to the inclusion of any considerable number of teachers in curriculum-development activities. These objections come from both administrators and teachers. Some administrators suggest that teachers are not prepared for engaging in such a responsible undertaking as curriculum development.

⁴ C. A. Weber, "What Techniques of Curriculum Development Are Most Effective?" *Curriculum Journal*, XIV (April, 1943), 173-76.

Teachers, while interested in having a voice in the development of the curriculum which they will be asked to carry out, state that they have not the time to engage in the study, conferences, and developmental work necessary to such a program. These criticisms of plans for wide teacher participation arise in large part either from a superficial understanding of the purpose of curriculum development or from poor planning.

The administrator who complains that teachers are not properly prepared to assume such responsibilities may be overlooking the vital place which in-service training programs ought to hold in every school system or he may be pathetically lacking in confidence in his co-workers. The overwhelming majority of teachers both can and desire to improve their classroom teaching. They can do this only if they are stimulated, given opportunity and assistance. Good curriculum planning not only requires in-service training, but it offers an excellent opportunity for teachers to experience the satisfaction which comes from planning and working together for an improved program. More real progress toward a truly effective educational program is made through challenging, well-planned teachers' meetings, conferences, forums, and summer workshops dealing with curriculum problems than can possibly be made through countless courses of study and syllabi written by experts.

Teachers who state that they have not the time to take part in curriculum programs have frequently been asked to assume these responsibilities in addition to a full-time teaching load. While teachers may be expected to give a reasonable amount of time to meetings, discussions, and conferences on professional subjects, there are many time-consuming types of work which are a part of curriculum development which no teacher should be asked to take on without proper relief from her regular duties. She should be released from classroom teaching when she is expected to develop and write instructional units and prepare guides and handbooks.

4) *Secure the co-operation of parents and other interested lay citizens.* American schools are unique in the extent to which the lay public helps to mold the outline of their educational programs. Schools tend to emphasize those values which seem wise and desirable to its citizens. They tend to give attention to those social problems and needs which are the deepest concern of society. As an illustration, society's concern in regard to health, nutrition, consumer problems, conservation of natural resources, and the needs of returning ex-service personnel has made these matters of vital importance to the school.

School leaders cannot expect to formulate the policies of the school without the support and understanding of intelligent lay groups. The development of an understanding of desirable departures from the traditional educational pattern is a phase of curriculum development for which curriculum workers must assume responsibility. The layman should be encouraged to consider such educational problems as: the purposes of education in American life, what the school should seek to accomplish, and the best ways to achieve these desired objectives. School leaders must do far more about taking the public into their confidence and into partnership if the schools are to give their best service to the children and to the adults of the community. Co-operative plans for curriculum development offer an opportunity not only to develop the degree of lay understanding which will underwrite and support a program of curriculum construction, but also to stimulate school personnel through an exchange of opinion with lay leaders.

5) *Provide leadership.* It has been pointed out that any program of curriculum development should not only include the teachers of the school or community but also the school administrators, parents, and other lay leaders. It is obvious that such a varied group cannot proceed far without leadership. Usually the leadership is vested in some type of central planning or steering committee with a chairman to carry out the plans of the group. The chairman may be a superintendent of schools, an assistant superintendent, a principal, a teacher, a supervisor, or a director of curriculum. The title is unimportant but the ability of the leader is of the greatest importance.

As chairman or leader he has the responsibility of carrying out the plans of the central committee, of inspiring and interesting others, and of guiding and co-ordinating the efforts of many individuals and committees in order that the total effort will be marked with success. It is desirable that he be a well-trained educator, one with an intimate knowledge of educational research and of teaching techniques. He must be essentially democratic and must possess the creative ability necessary to planning new enterprises, using the resources of the community, and releasing the talents of the school personnel. To attempt a program of curriculum development without competent leadership is to invite a degree of frustration and discouragement which will be positively detrimental not only to the current program but also to any effort toward curriculum improvement which might be made for several years.

IV. HELPS PRESENTED IN THIS YEARBOOK

Underlying the materials presented in this yearbook is a scheme of curriculum reconstruction which is summarized in chapter v, "General

Techniques of Curriculum Planning." The application of this scheme to the areas of instruction treated in other chapters of the book is summarized in a chart which follows. No chapter is completely analyzed, but the chart may serve to call attention to the type of curriculum thinking which entered into the development of the material.

In brief, each chapter first acquaints the reader with the social values, needs, and problems which should be considered in connection with any plan to improve instruction in the field under discussion; second, these needs are translated into goals or objectives; then, learning experiences and ways of accomplishing the objectives are suggested; and finally there are proposals for evaluating the learner's progress.

There are important interrelationships between the various phases of curriculum construction presented in the chart which cannot be fully illustrated here but which must receive attention. As one illustration, we may recognize intolerance for minority groups as one of our crucial social problems. We desire to so plan our educational program as to eliminate these prejudices; therefore we set up this determination as one of our objectives somewhat as follows: to develop an appreciation of Americans of all creeds, races, and nationalities. The need for reducing and eliminating prejudices does not as such become an objective. We do not propose to attack this problem directly by teaching all about prejudices and hatreds. Instead of this, we set as our goal the task of developing greater appreciation of other peoples because we believe that such an approach is the best way of meeting the need. Thus, in curriculum thinking there is always the task of translating needs into clear-cut objectives and goals. Chapter v gives a detailed description of this process.

The next task is that of selecting experiences and content which will enable the school to accomplish its objective in developing greater appreciation of all Americans. What are the learning experiences and the content which will accomplish this purpose? The curriculum committee may decide that becoming acquainted with the arts and literature of minority groups will be helpful. Then there is the question of what is the best content or literature to use. Also, the committee may decide that another good experience will be that of asking pupils to diagram their "family trees" in order to show how many of them are descendants of peoples of several nationalities.

The problem of selecting experiences is a complicated one. Out of a host of possible experiences and out of a store of content, curriculum-workers must select the experiences and content which will be most effective in reaching their accepted objective. Again chapter v proposes

a method of testing each experience through the use of certain criteria as a series of screens. Curriculum-workers of a given locality may wish to modify the proposed criteria to suit the philosophy and principles of education which guide curriculum work in that community. The proposed criteria, however, serve to illustrate the thoughtful examination which should be given each experience. As an illustration, the proposed experiences of having children become acquainted with the best literature of other peoples and of having each child outline his own "family tree," may not in the judgment of some curriculum committees satisfy all six of the criteria proposed in chapter v, but they should be subjected to the test.

There is also the important problem of determining the organization of the learning experiences once they are selected. This is discussed in chapter v, but since it is a method of work it is not included in the chart.

To summarize, the following analysis of several chapters of this yearbook is intended to give a brief overview of the four important types of information presented in each chapter. The analysis is not complete for any one chapter since it is intended to be illustrative only of the very concrete helps to be found in this yearbook.

SUMMARY OF CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION PROCEDURES AS APPLIED TO REPRESENTATIVE AREAS OF INSTRUCTION IN THE CORRESPONDING CHAPTERS OF THIS YEARBOOK

Chapter II: *Liberalizing the Program for Preschool Children*

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
<p>Research shows the importance of the early years of childhood for later health, growth, and personality development. Many parents have gained knowledge of the value of an educational program for children from 2 to 6 years of age through an acquaintance of the work of private and WPA nursery schools and lately of Child Care Centers maintained under the Lanham Act.</p> <p>School authorities are becoming aware of their functions as a community agency concerned with the well-being of all children.</p>	<p>To provide each young child with care which will promote his optimum growth and development through nursery schools.</p>	<p>Opportunity for muscle development and co-ordination</p> <p>Alternation of periods of quiet and active work</p> <p>Fresh air and out-of-door activity adequate for growth and development</p> <p>Regularity in eating, drinking water, sleeping, rest, and elimination</p> <p>Food to meet body needs</p> <p>Cleanliness and clothing appropriate to use and weather</p> <p>Daily check-up as a protection against colds and other communicable diseases</p> <p>Periodic health examinations with a follow-up of doctor's recommendations</p> <p>Opportunities for work and play experiences in a friendly environment</p> <p>Opportunities and media to extend and express their understanding of their environment, such as trips, stories, dramatic play, music, clay, paint, blocks, language, and numbers</p> <p>Contacts with adults to broaden their understanding of their functions, such as stopping to see the policeman on the way to school, a trip to the office of the doctor or principal, a trip to the grocery store or to see some men building a house</p> <p>Opportunities to participate in certain recognized social traditions and events, such as Christmas and birthdays</p>	<p>Cumulative records of the child's health, attendance, development, and progress</p>

Chapter III: *The Education of War Workers and Returned Service Personnel*

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
<p>Adjustment to civilian life of ex-service personnel whose educational plans were interrupted or who will return desiring additional training</p> <p>Retraining for employment of displaced war workers</p> <p>Young people who left school to take wartime employment before completing high-school education</p>	<p>To provide a balanced program of general education and vocational training</p>	<p>General education along with specialized vocational education in order to give ex-service personnel better knowledge of their obligation as parents, workers, and citizens</p> <p>Credit for military training and experience</p> <p>Terminal curriculums and sub-professional training in colleges and junior colleges</p> <p>Training for new occupational opportunities</p> <p>Courses organized around a unified point of concentration</p> <p>More emphasis upon preparation for home and family life</p> <p>Educational, vocational, and personal counseling service</p>	<p>Continuous planning and appraising of the program by co-operative groups of students and faculty members</p>

Chapter IV: *Adapting Adult-Education Programs to Postwar Needs*

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
War and postwar social and economic conditions	To develop on the part of adult groups an understanding of problems involved in:	Educational opportunities for all adults in a greatly broadened program of adult and community education	Increased use of tests, inventories, questionnaires and other devices in appraising changes in attitudes, habits and interests as well as in skills and information
Reconversion of industry and agriculture to peace-time programs	Re-establishing a sound peacetime economy	Establish closer co-ordination and co-operation among agencies and organizations offering educational service to adults	
Suitable employment for all who need or want work	Reorganizing communities for peacetime living		
Re-employment of ex-service men and women	Stabilizing and strengthening family life	Provide means for carrying on continuous study of community needs as a basis for program planning	
Use of war savings	Continuing growth and understanding of the principles and practices of democracy	Integrate programs of study with action and service so that students may learn through application	
Re-settlement of populations leaving heavily congested war production areas		Provide a wide variety of leadership	
Constructive use of such war installations as housing projects, factories, etc.		Make greater use of radio, films, dramatizations, and the newer media of instruction	
Adjustments of family relationships—disabled or emotionally disturbed ex-service men and women		Base more programs on ultimate values and purposes as well as on immediate goals	
Effective treatment of juvenile delinquency			

Chapter VI: *Broadening the Objectives of Health Education*

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
<p>The war made evident the fact that health is basic to efficiency in national defense: large per cent of rejections for the Armed Forces for remediable physical defects; the increase in patients in mental hospitals; the rejection of 10 per cent of "draftees" because of evidence of emotional difficulties; and large loss of manpower in war industries through accidents and preventable illness</p>	<p>To develop in each child the best physical and mental health of which he is capable</p> <p>To provide healthful homes, neighborhoods and schools</p>	<p>Opportunities for each child to take an active part in planning his own health goals and the health practices which will help him achieve such goals</p> <p>Information in regard to desirable health habits and health practices</p> <p>Experiences which will lead the child to assume responsibility for attaining the best health possible for himself and for protecting the health and welfare of others</p> <p>Classrooms which are friendly, happy places to live and work</p> <p>Opportunities to develop special abilities, work and play whole-heartedly, work and share with others, learn to meet failure and criticism constructively</p> <p>Guidance for pupil with emotional difficulties</p>	<p>Appraise changes in individual by observation, tests, interviews, health examinations, and pupil self-appraisal procedures</p>

Chapter VII: *Providing Work Experience and Guidance for Postwar Youth*

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
<p>Many young people cannot in normal times obtain work and service experience without the assistance of some agency—as the school</p> <p>Young people cannot profit fully by such experience unless they have counsel and advice</p>	<p>To give pupils opportunity to explore vocational field through selected work opportunities</p> <p>To extend training for a job into field of actual practice and to re-enforce other school learnings by relating them to job experience</p> <p>To learn by first-hand experience the attitudes and work habits needed for vocational success</p> <p>To engender a feeling of self-respect and personal integrity</p> <p>To give training in co-operative endeavor and to develop understanding of the problems of others</p> <p>To develop a set of economic values</p>	<p>Opportunities for every pupil, every year of his school career to gain experience by giving some service</p> <p>Experience in work of some type at every level beginning with chores and errands for the youngest and progressing to "real" work (real in meeting some true economic or social demand) at the twelfth-grade level</p> <p>Opportunities to discuss work and service experiences in school classrooms and thus integrate school learnings with work and service experiences</p>	<p>Observation of pupil's behavior in a "real" work or service situation</p>

Chapter VIII: *New Aims and Procedures in Consumer Education*

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
Every individual in the community is a consumer of goods and services	To help each person become a better manager of his economic resources so that he may use his income, savings and other possessions in ways which will yield the greatest possible satisfaction	Surveys of neighborhood buying practices	Observations and questionnaires on pupil and adult interest in consumer problems
The elimination of formal consumer-education courses from the curriculum of Grades XI-XII during the war period	To aid each individual in becoming a better buyer of goods and services so that he will get the best goods and the best services available	Studies of comparative prices	Tests on information and attitudes in regard to consumer problems
Wartime shortages of consumer goods	To aid each individual to become a better user of goods and services so that he may gain the maximum benefit from what he has	Collection and analysis of labels	
Wartime savings and war bonds and the use of these savings in the postwar period	To aid the individual to become a better "consumer citizen," so that he will act in ways which will promote the welfare of consumers as a whole	Study of advertisements	
Ways of continuing community co-operation achieved through victory gardens, sharing of goods, etc.		The use of texts for gaining information on consumer problems	
Every individual a manager of certain personal resources		Field trips to visit factories, stores, housing projects, etc.	
Ways of continuing lessons in conservation taught by the war emergency, as better care and use of automobiles, household equipment, shoes, etc.		The use of visual aids, movies, displays, and exhibits	
		The use of learning procedures such as debates, demonstrations, experiments, interviews, radio broadcasts, and discussions on consumer topics	
		Encourage the application of consumer knowledge in daily life in the home and community	

Chapter IX: *Education in the Use of Natural Resources*

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
<p>"Industrial development of our nation has since the opening of the present century greatly intensified the use of minerals, both in volume and variety"</p> <p>"In the last forty-four years the industrial expansion of the world has used more of its mineral resources than in all its preceding history"</p> <p>We are burning up irreplaceable natural resources</p> <p>We are using replaceable resources without due attention to maintaining a balance between demand and supply</p>	<p>To create an understanding of what is meant by unity of nature</p> <p>To develop an appreciation of the interdependence of man and his natural environment</p> <p>To teach the ABC's of the elements and their sources in the natural environment</p>	<p>Experiences which will give an understanding of the interdependence of sun, water, land, plant and animal life and their roles in maintaining the unity of nature</p> <p>Experiences which will develop an understanding of what happens when the relationship among the elements of natural environment is disturbed, as the relation of soil erosion and silt-filled streams to loss of fertility of soil</p> <p>Experiences which will develop an understanding of man's dependence on his natural environment</p> <p>Experiences which will develop an understanding of the ways in which man disturbs the natural balance between elements and the consequent effects on man—soil erosion and poor crops, destruction of forests and floods</p> <p>Experiences which will develop an understanding of the significance of the types of resources—returnable and non-returnable</p> <p>Information on developing and locating substitutes for non-returnable resources</p> <p>Observation of what man can accomplish in education, government and business if he uses natural resources in a scientific manner</p> <p>The use of visual aids in showing the work of erosion, etc.</p> <p>Community surveys to observe examples of scientific use of resources and of attempts to restore balance</p>	<p>Pupil-made surveys of production and conservation measures</p>

Chapter X: *The Community-School Emphasis in Postwar Education*

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
<p>War and postwar conditions bring to each community serious problems of political, social and economic nature</p> <p>An increased determination on the part of educators to take the initiative in meeting the legitimate educational needs of the community rather than wait for governmental or pressure groups to force action</p> <p>Shifting populations due to wartime changes and consequent contacts with unfamiliar practices and ideologies in various local communities have increased need for adult education</p> <p>Increased interest in a world peace which will necessitate better understanding of the interdependence of all peoples and nations</p>	<p>To co-ordinate all educational services in a community in order to provide a broad and effective program</p> <p>To base educational activities on the needs and interests of those for whom they are planned; community problems will become important in the school curriculum and the school will utilize community resources in the solution of community problems</p> <p>To give practice in the democratic processes</p> <p>To provide an educational program for all age levels in a community</p> <p>To see that each teacher in a community school is a member of the community</p> <p>To make the school, its physical plant and environment, a community center and a demonstration of desirable operation and maintenance of property</p>	<p>Provide service for co-ordinating through representative councils and committees the community's total educational program—Sunday school, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Y.M.C.A., city recreational program, city library, etc.</p> <p>Survey of the community's resources and ways of using them to solve community problems</p> <p>Relate school curriculum to the community Use the local community as a laboratory.</p> <p>Such co-operation between pupils and teachers, school administrators and laymen of the community as will enable them to work together in planning the school's educational program</p> <p>Greater use of the school plant for educational purposes by both children and adults</p> <p>An extended school day and school year</p> <p>Educational programs, both general and vocational, conducted at the school during the summer months</p> <p>Encouraging teachers to live in the community and become a vital part of it</p> <p>Summer work and camp experiences for students</p>	<p>Check growing interest in education on the part of adults</p> <p>Observations of intelligent solution of community problems through group study and planning</p>

Chapter XI: *New National Concepts in Domestic Affairs*

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
<p>The outlook for jobs for youth</p> <p>The role society assigns to youth</p>	<p>To induct youth into the culture</p> <p>To help youth to assume responsibility for national citizenship</p>	<p>Find social roles for youth that make them feel they are wanted and are making a social contribution</p> <p>Chance for youth to work for a wage</p> <p>Chance for observation of the social scene</p> <p>Chance for youth to serve community</p> <p>Study of American life and culture built around a small and carefully chosen set of important and recurring social issues</p>	<p>Tests, observation, and evidences of community participation</p>

Chapter XII: Postwar Education for International Understanding

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS	OBJECTIVES	OPPORTUNITIES AND EXPERIENCES	EVALUATION
Limited acquaintance with other nations Sentimentality unmixed with understanding of world problems	To understand the significant international problems To develop the ability and interest to take a constructive part in international affairs	Study of world influences on American life Study of world areas formerly neglected, including Latin America, Asiatic countries, the Soviet Union, and Canada Study of techniques of international action Use of forums, current-events clubs, assembly programs, visual and auditory aids	Tests, observations, written papers

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INFORMATION CONCERNING THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

1. **PURPOSE** The purpose of the National Society is to promote the investigation and discussion of educational questions. To this end it holds an annual meeting and publishes a series of yearbooks.

2. **ELIGIBILITY TO MEMBERSHIP** Any person who is interested in receiving its publications may become a member by sending to the Secretary-Treasurer information concerning name, title, and address, and a check for \$3.50 (see Item 5).

Membership is not transferable; it is limited to individuals, and may not be held by libraries, schools, or other institutions, either directly or indirectly.

3. **PERIOD OF MEMBERSHIP.** Applicants for membership may not date their entrance back of the current calendar year, and all memberships terminate automatically on December 31, unless the dues for the ensuing year are paid as indicated in Item 6.

4. **DUTIES AND PRIVILEGES OF MEMBERS.** Members pay dues of \$2 50 annually, receive a cloth-bound copy of each publication, are entitled to vote, to participate in discussion, and (under certain conditions) to hold office. The names of members are printed in the yearbooks.

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7. **DISTRIBUTION OF YEARBOOKS TO MEMBERS.** The yearbooks, ready prior to each February meeting, will be mailed from the office of the distributors only to members whose dues for that year have been paid. Members who desire yearbooks prior to the current year must purchase them directly from the distributors (see Item 8).

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10. **MEETINGS.** The annual meeting, at which the yearbooks are discussed, is held in February at the same time and place as the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators.

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